REPORT RESUMES

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TEACHING READING TO THE BILINGUAL CHILD.

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SOME OF THE NEWER APPROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF SECOND LANGUAGES AS APPLIED TO ENGLISH READING INSTRUCTION FOR INDIAN AND MEXICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS ARE EXPLORED. SPECIAL EMPHASIS IS GIVEN TO THE UNIQUE CULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS FACED BY THE CHILDREN OF THESE ETHNIC GROUPS. CONSIDERABLE EMPHASIS IS GIVEN TO THE NEED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING COMMUNICATION SKILLS TO FACILITATE THE LEARNING OF READING SKILLS. A MAJOR PORTION OF THE TEXT IS DEVOTED TO A DETAILED REVIEW OF PHONICS, AS USED IN THE TEACHING OF READING. SPECIFIC REFERENCE IS MADE TO READING SKILLS WHICH SHOULD BE MASTERED BY ALL READING STUDENTS. THE ULTIMATE GOAL OF THE READING PROGRAM IS TO ENABLE STUDENTS TO READ ALL TYPES OF MATERIAL WITH COMPREHENSION, EASE, AND ENJOYMENT. (DK)

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TEACHING READING

to

THE BILINGUAL CHILD

1963

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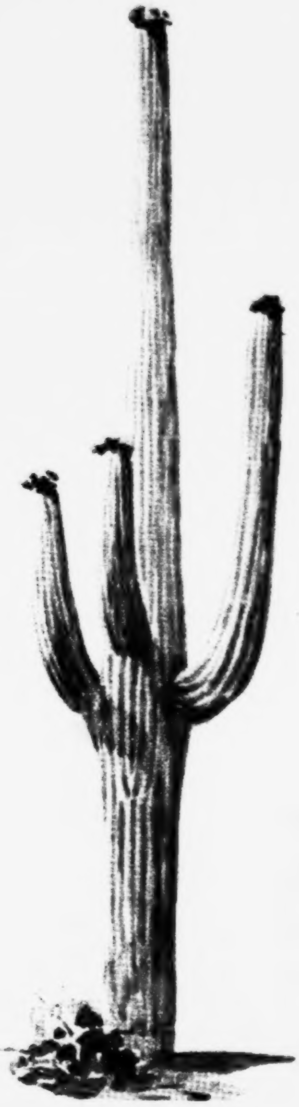

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CORRECTIONS

Under State Board of Education, read Honorable Waldo M. Dicus instead of Discus.

Page 13 - Sixth line from bottom, read regularity.

Page 24 - Rule 5, read word instead of sentence.

Page 36 - Last line, read peaceable.

Page 39 - Line 5, read excel for excell.

Page 44 - Line 21, delete market.

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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TEACHING READING

to

THE BILINGUAL CHILD

Edited by: Mamie Sizemore

W. W. "SKIPPER" DICK

STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

PHOENIX, ARIZONA

1963

THE CENTER FOR CULTURAL STUDIES
Adams State College of Colorado
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FOREWORD

It gives me great pleasure to offer the following comments on the improvement of reading to those who will open this bulletin, Teaching Reading to the Bilingual Child. You certainly are involved in one of the most important tasks of today - teaching bilingual children to read.

Every child, regardless of race, color, creed, has the right to be taught correctly the mastery of reading. Reading, the foundation which underlies knowledge, should have first importance in our schools. If a child does not read with good comprehension and with some rapidity - by the time he or she enters the fourth or fifth grade, that student suffers as though he or she were mentally handicapped. The mastery of geography, history, arithmetic as well as other subjects is impossible unless the child is able to read. Also the personality of the student is adversely affected when he is unable to read.

The constantly changing scope and changing nature of the problems which face citizens today and in the future, plus the mounting responsibility of individuals in political and social affairs necessitate the finest type of quality education for American students. Solid courses, subject matter, the "Three R's" must be strengthened. In addition, understanding our fellow man, has never been more important. Thomas Jefferson once said, "A nation which expects to be ignorant and free expects what has never been and what can never be. A constitutional Republic cannot exist without a citizenry which can read."

In the light of the above statements the ability to read - with facility, clarity, precision, and understanding assumes greater importance than ever before in the history of man-kind.

Today, technology promises a world without disease, without poverty, without ignorance. Industry, in an ever increasing degree, is educating her workers; however, this development does not lessen the great role of our schools. Our schools cannot begin to educate in detail, even the interested students in one - much less - several of these technological areas; however, our schools can and must produce good readers.

In closing I would like to express my appreciation for the long dedicated years Mrs. Sizemore has devoted to the teaching of reading. This bulletin should be a tribute to her and those who follow her footsteps, - those tireless workers who ever seek to better the process of teaching children to read should receive much praise and gratitude.

HON. SARAH FOLSOM
Member of the Arizona State Board of Education

A WORD TO TEACHERS

TEACHING READING TO THE BILINGUAL CHILD was written in an effort to share with the teachers of Arizona some of the newer approaches in second language learning as applied to reading instruction. There is a trend in our state for entire schools as well as individual teachers to experiment with less traditional methods of organization and materials in the teaching of reading to bilingual students. Through experience it has been found that administrators and teachers alike need guidance in trying these newer approaches.

Bilingual students are found in large public school systems, where they may be a minority of the student population. Then there are public schools where more than ninety percent of the school population comes from homes where English is not the native language. In addition there are Federal Bureau of Indian Affairs, and Mission Schools where all of the students are American Indians. It is felt by the Arizona Division of Indian Education that they are fortunate in having the opportunity to work with such a wide range of students learning to read English as a second language.

The problems of introducing new programs cannot be minimized; nor on the other hand, that change presents too many difficulties to be practical. New instructional approaches have been stimulated by new scientific advances and new approaches to old problems. More demanding standards and added content in our fast moving Space Age, have made it more necessary for teachers and students alike to be provided with the skills needed in order to achieve.

It takes more than gathering materials to write a bulletin on reading. It is, in a way, a culmination of many individuals' professional experiences. In preparing a publication, such as this, thanks and acknowledgement must go not only to the many teachers who have contributed to the content of the book, but also to those who have shared their knowledge and experience in the field of bilingual education.

In considering any of the approaches offered in this bulletin, remember, that suggested techniques and organizations, like sample lesson plans, are merely structures from which to deviate. Each reader should look at the suggestions and say, "How can I adapt, not adopt, this to best meet the needs of my students?"

Change is disturbing to many teachers. Even with the best of intent and preparation it is difficult to effect change. The purpose of this bulletin is to help teachers to evaluate their present reading programs and to introduce newer approaches to second language learning, always, with the reservation that little is entirely new. Also what works for some may not work for others, and that many times a generation may pass before a program can truly be evaluated with our Mexican-American and American-Indian students.

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TEACHING READING TO THE BILINGUAL CHILD

I SCOPE OF PROBLEM

It has been estimated that twenty-five percent of the school population of the United States is bilingual. The five southwestern states of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, and California were reported to have over 3,000,000 Spanish-speaking people in 1960. In addition here in the state of Arizona we have almost 100,000 American Indians. The melting pot of the United States indeed possesses many children entering school with little or no knowledge of English. These are the children who will be referred to in this bulletin as bilingual.

Effects of Childhood Bilingualism

Is this phenomenon of bilingualism a curse or a blessing? The question has captured the attention of governmental officials, school administrators, teachers, educational psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists, political scientists, linguists, speech correctionists, and personnel studying child development.

By demanding the use of the English language, as the medium of instruction, American elementary schools force upon a large number of children the problem of bilingualism. Many observers and investigators conclude that childhood bilingualism, forced or voluntary, results in many disadvantages. Handicaps may accrue to the individual in his:

a. speech development
b. overall language development
c. intellectual and educational progress
d. emotional stability

(This is not a bulletin on language teaching but is specifically written to deal with the teaching of reading to the bilingual child. However, no discussion of reading can eliminate the other communication skills and their sequential development.)

Faulty articulation and inappropriate pronunciation may be developed in second language learning. Numerous substitutions will be made of English sounds which other languages do not have, or vice versa. The child tends to carry over habits from his mother tongue. Many times these variations do not tend to decrease with age or skill, for the early influence of the student's native language is too strong.

Much literature, and some educators, assert that the bilingual will encounter numerous problems in language development. This is not only in the foreign language being learned, in this case English, but also in his native language. (For a more complete discussion on second language learning see: A New Approach to Second Language Learning: Arizona State Dept. of Public Instruction, 1962.)

A number of authors assert that the bilingual child may become handicapped in his intellectual development. Tending to think in one language and speak in another, he may become mentally uncertain and confused. However, on the other hand bilinguals may develop more flexibility in thinking. They generally switch from one language to another sometimes trying to solve a problem while thinking in one language and then, when blocked, switching to the other. This habit might make them in thinking, as a whole, more prone to drop one hypothesis or concept and try another. Monolinguals might be more rigid in this respect.

One of the greatest disadvantages of childhood bilingualism, of interest to teachers, is that the child will suffer retardation in his education progress. He may become handicapped in reading and studying in general, and in specific subjects. His interest, initiative, and responsiveness in class may decline, and he may develop an inadequate adjustment to school and education in general, which in turn may result in his prematurely dropping out of school.

It is well for teachers to realize that the bilingual child may develop serious emotional instability and social maladjustment. His frustrations arising from his ineffectiveness as a communicator, and ridicule and teasing which society may direct at him may be very damaging to him, particularly if he is a weak personality to begin with. Losing his self-confidence and sense of security, he may develop extreme introversion and shyness, or he may become very aggressive and antisocial. Much of the emotional stress and tension will center in the family. After being exposed to a second language in school, the child may develop a sense of shame and guilt regarding the language of his family and may direct this into a feeling of arrogance, contempt, hatred, rejection, and avoidance toward his parents. The mother, who usually retains the native tongue longer than the father, loses the ability to communicate easily with the children, and may lose the enjoyment of having children. When a younster is forced to use a second language and forget his mother tongue, it is tearing up his emotional roots and disrupting his innermost stability.

The mother tongue is so intricately connected to the child's first impressions of his world that it presumably never entirely vanishes from the unconscious. In this area of emotional adjustment, as in the areas of speech and language development, and intellectual and educational progress, the evidence, with exceptions, suggests that boys suffer more than girls.

Certainly we expect Indian and Mexican-American children in Arizona schools to learn to speak, read and write the English language. Yet, if this is made too important a goal per se, an objective to be obtained at the price of a violent break with everything in the past, the result is bound to be disruptive, since the needful continuity of life and its relationships will have been destroyed.

Biculturism

It has been found Indian Americans frequently acquire our technology, including our verbiage, without having either absorbed or even become aware of our values, which put curbs upon our love of gadgets, our "materialism." (While such generalizations apply to Indian Americans as a whole, there are cultural differences within each tribe of which account needs be taken.) Their own cultures having been largely demolished, however, they do not integrate themselves with ours save on the most mechanistic levels. They gain from us only the externals, the "objective" parts of our culture, without its total fabric. Hence, in effect, they have for a time at least no culture at all. And a people without a culture is in the same desperately isolated straits as an individual who has lost his memory.

Teachers' Understanding of the Bilingual Child's Background

Competent educators know that most intelligence and achievement tests, if not all, are unfair to bilingual students. Such children have had little opportunity to become familiar with the topics dealt with on these tests. Their parents many times do not speak English in the home. Although the child may have a rich background of experience in his own culture, he may still be handicapped in solving the academic problems that compose most standardized tests.

If we accept this viewpoint, that the student's limitations relate to cultural and language rather than to intelligence, we will realize that the responsibility of the school is increased for these children. The school must not only bear the responsibility of academic instruction, but also must assume the role of providing certain experiences that the home normally bears.

The problem of assuring a successful school career for our bilingual students becomes one of designing more effective school programs to meet their unique needs.

Most teachers, of our Indian and Mexican-American children, have experiential backgrounds quite different from their pupils. Often the teacher must modify his ideas before he can help these children. Much useful knowledge can be gained from the fields of linguistics, sociology, anthropology, and child psychology.

Langauge Handicaps

It has often been stated that the child who speaks a foreign language in the home and community is at a distinct disadvantage when he enters school and must learn to read and to speak English. It is both easy and dangerous to generalize from this statement. Obviously, the child is at a disadvantage when he is compared to children who have spoken English and have no other language. But the greatest handicap which the child faces is not the foreign language itself, but the level of that language as it is spoken in the home. If the parents are educated and communicative, the foreign language may give the child a distinct advantage in learning to acquire word meanings in English. In fact, this child may experience less difficulty than the English-speaking child who comes from a language-impoverished home and community.

II PRIMARY READING

Learning to read one's own native language and learning to read English as a foreign language are very different matters. In teaching students to read their own native language, one assumes that the student already can speak and understand their language. They have already learned to produce and to respond to the signals of their language as these signals come to them through the ear. For them to learn to read, it is simply necessary for them to learn to respond to the signals that formerly came to them through sound. The language signals themselves are the same for both talking and reading. It is the medium through which the signals come that is different. Talk is accomplished by patterns of sound symbols through the ear; reading is accomplished by patterns of written symbols through the eye. To learn to read one's native language, it is the process of reading itself that must be learned, not the language. A person who cannot produce these sounds cannot get the message of a piece of alphabetic writing. If the bilingual child has not learned to utter the speech sounds of English, the only sensible course is to postpone reading until he has learned to speak the language well enough to handle the written material presented. Trying to teach reading of the second language before learning to speak it is, to say the least, putting the cart before the horse.

To the linguist there is only one language, and that is the spoken and heard language. The basic building block in the structure of language is called the PHONEME--a single speech sound. A phoneme is a significant speech sound which makes a difference in meaning. For example, the English words rip and tip are distinguished only by the first consonant which we must recognize in order to obtain meaning. What the phoneme is to the spoken language, the GRAPHEME is to writing. A grapheme is the "a" in "mate." The "a" in "father" would be a different phoneme, as would be the "a" in "hat." But all would be represented by the grapheme "a."

The basic sound-signalling system of English consists of forty-five units called phonemes: nine vowels, three semi-vowels (y, h, w,) twenty-one consonants, four degrees of pitch, four degrees of loudness or stress, and four kinds of juncture. In any utterance, the pattern consists in the arrangements of these meaningless building blocks in combinations that have meaning. The phonemes are the minimal sound units which occur in the language and make differences in meaning. They appear in speech as parts of larger organizations. Phonemes are put together into morphemes, and morphemes into patterns of syntax.

All linguists emphasize the fact that speech is the primary form of language and underlies all writing. It is generally conceded that the development of competence in spoken language should run ahead of the development of competence in reading and writing at the primary level. At least in the primary grades, language patterns should be learned in the spoken language before they are introduced in the printed form. (An hypothesis which is as yet untested is in a sense the reverse of this; when children have mastered certain language patterns in their speaking, these patterns can begin to appear in the materials designed for teaching them to read.) In the discussion of the nature of the reading process, you will see why teachers of students learning English as a second language must tie all reading and writing to oral speech.

The Nature of the Reading Process

To learn to read one's native language, it is the process of the reading itself that must be learned, not the language. Bilingual students need to respond to the new language signals of English as these signals come to them through the ear. In addition they must learn to respond to the written shapes of the language.

We must remember that the signals that constitute a language are, first of all, patterns of vocal sounds. These patterns of vocal sounds are primary. For reading, man has invented various types of graphic representations of these patterns of vocal sounds. The patterns of graphic (written) representation are secondary. These secondary representations used for reading contain less of the language signals than do the primary representations--the vocal sounds. In graphic representations there are left out such language signals as intonation and stress, and pause. A large part of learning to read is to supply rapidly and automatically the portions of the sound system that are not represented in the graphic signs.

Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading

Space does not allow more than a brief discussion of the importance of certain aspects of linguistics in the field of beginning reading. As time goes on it may well be that the contributions of linguistics to the reading program will become as valuable as they have to the teaching of a second language. It may help us to achieve our goal of the prevention rather than the remediation of reading problems with the bilingual child as well as with the English speaking child. As we go into this discussion of the relationship of linguistics to reading, we must realize that meaning is not derived directly from the printed symbol (or word) but rather from the printed symbol put back into speech, either vocal or sub-vocal.

Linguists would advocate, that the Mexican-American or Indian child coming to school, not speaking English, must have mastered certain language patterns in their speaking of English before these patterns can appear in their reading material. You will see the importance of this statement as you read through the nature of the reading process in a first language.

Linguists do not quarrel with the assertions given by reading experts concerning the need to make careful provisions for "the cultivation of a whole array of techniques involved in understanding, thinking, reflecting, imagining, judging, evaluating, analyzing, reasoning, and in making emotional and social judgements." These techniques of thinking, and evaluating do not constitute the reading process. The abilities enumerated above are all abilities that are and must be developed through the uses of language. Every one of the abilities could be developed and has been achieved by persons who could not read. They are all matters of the uses of language and are not limited to the use of reading. For the sake of simplicity, linguists many times use such technical language that we are lost after the first three sentences; we will assume that the first grade student has learned enough English so that he can report satisfactorily, ask questions, and make requests within the range of his social-cultural experiences. What precisely must such a child learn, in addition to his understanding and producing "talk" in order to "read" materials that also lie within the range of his second language learning, and social-cultural experiences?

Simply responding to graphic (written) signs by uttering certain sounds is not "reading." You cannot say a child is talking when he repeats after you the sound patterns in da-dy or ba-by. "To talk" the sound patterns must have all the features of "some language signal working through a language code to elicit a meaningful response." "Reading" is the response to graphic signals and must have all the features of some language signal operating in a language code, eliciting a meaningful response. "Word-calling" (word pronouncing) without the meaningful responses of the patterns that make the language signals of a code is neither reading nor talking. This view is in opposition to that expressed in Why Johnny Can't Read, and What You Can Do About It, by Rudolf Flesch:

> "Many years ago, when I was about fifteen, I took a semester's course in Czech; I have since forgotten everything about the language itself, but I still remember how the letters are pronounced, plus the simple rule that all words have the accent on the first syllable. Armed with this knowledge, I once surprised a native of Prague by reading aloud from a Czech newspaper. "Oh, you know Czech?" he asked. "No, I don't understand a word of it," I answered. "I can only read it."

To learn to read a language, that you can speak, you must transfer auditory signals for language, to the new signs for the same language. During the "transfer stage" of learning to read, the materials used should be based on the child's speaking vocabulary. This is not the time to push the development of additional language mastery as far as the written material is concerned. This stage of the reading process can become very confusing if the body of language meanings and language signals used is not limited to those already within the linguistic experience of the child.

The following statement made by a well known linguist will come as a surprise to many primary teachers: "The teaching of beginning reading must not be conceived of in terms of imparting knowledge, but in terms of opportunities for practice." We, as adult reader, respond unconsciously to graphic features. This did not come about by "nature" and had to be "learned." These habits of unconscious response have been achieved by thousands of hours of practice or use.

In view of these facts, we do not hesitate to say that the rewards of the first steps in reading should not be impressive growth in English vocabulary. There are rewards, however, of many types. There is the great satisfaction of mastering a skill in an orderly fashion. If an analogy will help here, we might say the first steps in reading are like first steps in learning to drive an automobile. Both skills have enormous attractions to the eager learner, for they are gateways to many joys. The learning car-driver has these rewards in mind, but at the start he is totally engrossed simply in the activity of learning to drive. At this stage he has no thought of going anywhere. Learning to operate the automobile is interest enough in itself, and so with reading. The reward of emulating the grownup, for whom reading is obviously very important, is the long-range goal; but the skill itself is reward and delight enough for the beginner.

Dr. Charles Carpenter Fries summarizes the above very concisely, in Linguistics and Reading (Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1963) page 132.

> The first stage in learning the reading process is the "transfer" stage. It is the period during which the child is learning to transfer from auditory signs for language signals, which he has already learned, to a set of visual signs for the same signals. This process of transfer is not the learning of the language code or of a new language code; it is not the learning of a new or different set of language signals. It is not the learning of new "words", or of new grammatical structures, or of new meanings. These are all matters of the language signals which he has on the whole already learned so well that he is not conscious of their use. The first stage is complete when within his narrow linguistic experience the child can respond rapidly and accurately to the visual patterns that represent the language signals, in this limited field, as he does to the auditory patterns that they replace.
>
> The second stage covers the period during which the responses to the visual patterns become habits so automatic that the graphic shapes themselves sink below the threshold of attention, and the cumulative comprehension of the meanings signalled enable the reader to supply those portions of the signals which are not in the graphic representation themselves.
>
> The third stage begins when the reading process itself is so automatic that the reading is used equally with or even more than live language in the acquiring and developing of experience--when reading stimulates the vivid imaginative realization of vicarious experience.

THE BILINGUAL STUDENT AND THE TEACHING OF PHONICS

Definition of Terms

Before starting this discussion it might be well to clarify the use of terms many times erroneously used when talking and writing about the use of phonics in the teaching of reading.

Phonics is used by teachers as one of the methods of helping students to solve the problems presented by "new" words by "sounding" the letters. It consists primarily in attempting to match the individual letters by which a word is spelled with the specific "sounds" which letters "say."

Phonetics is a branch of physics that studies the native speech sounds and a way in which they are produced by the vocal apparatus and received by the ear. Phonetics is not concerned with the ways in which words are spelled in English by the traditional alphabet.

Phonemics is a set of techniques by which to identify and to describe, especially in terms of distribution, the bundles of sound contrasts that constitute the structural units that mark the word patterns. It is the phonemes of the language that alphabetic writing represents.

An alphabet is a set of graphic shapes that can represent the separate vowel and consonant phonemes of the language. All alphabets are phonemically based, and the procedures of teaching the process of reading alphabetic writing must take into consideration the essential fact of the structural base of alphabetic writing.

Reading is first of all, the mechanical skill of decoding, of turning the printed symbols into the sounds which are language. Of course the reason we turn the print into sound (that is, read) is to get at the meaning. We decode the printed symbols in order to hear what they "say."

Linguistics is not a teaching method, but a growing body of knowledge and theory based on the scientific study of language.

English Sounds

First, the child learning English as a second language needs to learn to utter English sound orally. He needs to learn to hear accurately and produce clearly the vowel sounds that distinguish eat from it, late from let, bed from bad, hot from hat, fool from full, coat from caught, caught from cut, and so on.

He needs also to learn to hear accurately and to pronounce clearly the consonant sounds that distinguish pig from big, pig from pick, thank from sank, then from den, thin from thing, place from plays--these consonant sound distinctions, and many more.

He needs to learn how to produce orally the diphthongs, as in die, or my, boy or voice, now or sound. He needs to learn the consonant cluster, like the ts cluster in hats, or the sp cluster in speak, or the lpt cluster as the last sound in helped.

Most of all, the bilingual student needs to be helped to form habits of using these sounds orally before being exposed to them in writing. He needs to make their use automatic, so that he will never have to stop and think how they should be pronounced.

Relation Between Language and Writing

From an extensive review of teachers' manuals for primary reading series, it appears that a considerable amount of time and effort is expended in teaching children to distinguish different sounds, meanings and grammatical forms. This seems like a needless diversion from the central goal of teaching beginning reading to the child that has an oral mastery of the materials being presented in written form. The most reasonable thing would be to proceed directly to the essential matter of associating sequences of letters with sequences of sounds. This will be a much slower process with the child that does not have adequate control of the sound system and the grammatical structure of English. So you can see, as stated above, that you must postpone reading until your Indian and Mexican-American students have mastered certain language patterns in speaking. Then these same patterns can appear in the materials designed for teaching them to read.

After the "transfer" stage of learning to read, of course children will enrich their knowledge of the language by enlarging their spoken and writing vocabularies. The English speaking student will learn hundreds of new words and idioms through their reading both in school and out. (This is not always true with your bilingual students where few have traveled widely for pleasure and education, fewer have reading materials at home, fewer have access to radio and television programs, and many live in homes where very little English is spoken. It then becomes necessary for the school to provide as many of these experiences as possible.)

In the early stages of learning to read the purpose is not to add to the child's stock of words. In fact, most preprimers and primers expressly avoid words that are likely to be unfamiliar. This is in accord with the primary goal of simply learning to read words that the student has in his speech.

In view of this it seems rather wasteful to spend time and effort "clarifying the meanings" of words like, this, that, it, he, she, they, but, so, is, was, etc. The meanings of such words must be firmly and permanently established in the child's mind and should be constantly reinforced by dozens of repetitions, in oral English, every day.

Another activity that is important in teaching the child, whose native language is not English, is the training given in "auditory perception." Teachers should not confuse this activity with the process of learning to read. (See the comments of Dr. Fries above.)

Teachers must keep in mind at all times that ear training is extremely important in the teaching of any foreign language. Drill on proper articulation of sounds is necessary, but ear training is even more fundamental. A student must first hear a sound clearly before he can produce it. Concepts of quality, pitch, and volume originate in the hearing area of the brain. The tonal image is heard mentally before it is actually produced by the voice. If this image is not exact, the production of the sound will not be accurate.

It takes a much longer time than most teachers realize for a student to distinguish clearly the various sounds in a foreign language--particularly if such sounds do not exist in his own native language or are produced in a different way from comparable sounds in his own language. For example, a beginning student of English, whose native language is Spanish, is completely "deaf" to the difference between the English vowel sounds in such words as bit and beat. The difference is so clear to the English ear that it is hard to realize that anyone, regardless of language background, should have difficulty in hearing it. Yet to the Spanish speaking student bit and beat sound exactly alike. It will take this student several months to hear any difference between the two words. After this, it will take additional months before he can approximate the difference in his own speech. Finally, if he is not checked continuously, he will slip back later and just not bother to differentiate between the two sounds. Then when he starts reading this will be an additional handicap to overcome.

You would, I am certain, agree that learning to read is more than just learning to tell "a" from "b" or learning what sound goes with what letter. Connecting "squiggles" on paper with speech sounds is hard enough for the native speaker of English. But now consider a student learning English as a second language, to whom we hope the same "squiggles" will come to mean exactly what they would to a good native reader. To summarize we can say, briefly, that experience and research tell us that phonics (as defined above) is effective with the student learning English as a second language when it is taught functionally and related to oral speech.

It seems probable that no one theory is adequate to explain all the learning that takes place in the acquisition of skills and habits involved in the complex process of learning to read. Accordingly, successful teachers no longer rely on one specific method of teaching. Rather, the skilled teacher combines aspects from a number of systems for learning to read, varying the method in relation to the specific purpose back of the learning.

IV READINESS

An extensive review of books (1957-1963) prepared for teachers wishing to acquaint themselves with the modern philosphy and practices in the teaching of reading was made by the staff of the Division of Indian Education of the Arizona State Department of Public Instruction. The survey showed an almost 100 percent disregard for techniques to be used in teaching the bilingual child to read. The following is a quote from Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction, by Mildred A. Dawson and Henry A. Bamman published by David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1963.

> A child's language development does much to determine his initial readiness for reading. How can he read sentences if his spoken sentences are fragmentary or incorrectly phrased? How can he follow the sequence of events in a story if he cannot tell an experience of his own in good sequence? How can he read English if he hears and speaks a foreign language at home? It is important that a child's spoken language be far advanced if he is going to be able to read printed language. The so-called prerequisites for learning to read involve the following aspects of languages:
>
> A wide listening and speaking vocabulary
> Ability to speak in complete sentences
> Ability to pronounce and enunciate words correctly
> Ability to hear the differences and likenesses in
>   the sounds that make up spoken words
>   (M vs. n; d vs. t)
> Ability to follow the sequence of ideas in a story

So you can see why the immediate goal of instruction in the first grade, for bilingual children, is to develop understanding and automatic control of oral English. These children, of course, must ultimately gain proficiency in reading and writing. The teacher should therefore make every effort to provide them, when they are ready, with appropriate reading and writing experiences.

They need a program of instruction in English as a second language that enables them quickly to function adequately in the classroom with their peers and that provides the foundation for further growth in the English language. The experiences that are used for helping the child acquire this basic foundation should be keyed to the regular classroom program.

The teacher will find that she cannot go far beyond the present in time, location, or in her daily work with the children. If language is to be meaningful, she must deal with what can be seen, touched, smelled, and tasted.

The period between hearing and speaking appears to be an important learning stage and one not always appreciated as such. Much language learning will have actually taken place before newly learned words are spoken.

The commonly referred to "developmental feature" of readiness appears especially worth considering in relation to children's other language learning. It is known, of course, that language content, however wisely selected and tactfully presented, cannot go beyond the child's own mental and emotional set. But because it is not easy to know when the child is ready, there often appears to be a tendency on the part of adults to carry this concept too far and to stand by for indeterminate periods waiting for the child to speak. Often, all the child needs is a little aid or encouragement. The teacher should be alert to the signals of the child's readiness to try to speak, should be ready to help him with the best aids and procedures at her command.

Second language learning is clearly allied with the child's total development. There is evidence to support an emerging picture of young bilinguals, especially our Indian students, as shy, unaggressive and unassertive. These characteristics are not conducive to learning, and much less to expression in a new language. To learn a second language one must have the capacity to take chances, be unafraid of making mistakes, and find satisfaction in an expressive activity. The teacher must incorporate ways of meeting such considerations in her basic planning.

There is considerable agreement that the child in his early school years is at a favorable stage physiologically as well as emotionally for learning a second language. Recognition of this fact should prompt the primary grade teacher to do not less but more in her efforts to further language learning. First of all, and because of her greater freedom, she will maintain an all-encompassing approach to the child who is a "learner" not only in language but in a whole cultural milieu. From this basis she will purposely and thoughtfully make use of the language aids that are proffered to her by the latest research in second language learning.

Even children learning to read in their native language may have difficulties in the area of auditory discrimination (the ability to hear the differences and similarities in the sounds of various words) and may need supplementary experiences after they enter first grade. Hearing and saying nursery rhymes and other simple poems can be so guided that the pupils will begin to note both the alliteration and the rhyming words in "Peter, Peter Pumpkin Eater" and "Sing a Song of Sixpence." Listening to rhymes and word sounds is not enough; the children should also have many opportunities to enunciate them. It is as a child deliberately gets his tongue and lips into position for making a desired sound that he becomes truly aware of the sounds that constitute any particular word.

Introductory reading readiness books for the pupils' use abound in interesting exercises that will help children become alert to the sounds that make up spoken words. Teachers' manuals that accompany sets of readers give careful guidance in the materials and methods that will best cultivate auditory discrimination in children. Every teacher should avail herself of the helps that such manuals provide. Since many teachers, of bilingual children, do not fully understand auditory discrimination and ways to develop it, they must use manuals for this very fundamental aspect of reading skills.

Another important element in reading readiness is visual discrimination, or the ability to see the differences and likenesses in words. Many reading readiness books have exercises in which a row of five objects has four that are just alike, and one that is a little bigger or that faces the opposite way or that has a part missing. The child then selects the one that is not like the other. Other beginning workbooks have similar exercises that involve only letters or words, the principle being that children should learn the kind of discrimination that reading actually calls for. Here, too, teachers' manuals give helpful suggestions for teaching children to develop visual discrimination.

For the child who has had meager contacts with reading in his home, the teacher should provide a rich reading environment: a corner with many intriguing picture books; a bulletin board with announcements, posters and captioned pictures that will arouse curiosity; a chalk-board that daily features committee listings and plans, news stories dictated by the pupils, and other current notices. There should be daily periods when she reads to the children. Here the teacher must provide abundantly what the home has failed to give.

Readiness for reading is an important factor not only at the first-grade level but throughout all the grades. Just as children may or may not be ready for reading a pre-primer or primer, so they may, or may not be ready for a fourth or seventh reader. The readiness of every student at each successive stage must be diagnosed, and, if found wanting, must be carefully developed. As they advance through the school program, children meet new words, encounter widened concepts of old words, cope with more complex organization of materials, and develop new needs or purposes in reading. Thus, in a very real sense, the child is always beginning and, therefore, always in need of readiness.

V THE USE OF BASIC READERS

In an Associated Press release in May 1963, Indian Commissioner Philleo Nash made the following comments about educational materials provided for Indian children in our schools:

> Nash has been critical of the "Dick and Jane" textbooks as educational material for Indian children. He says these are oriented toward the middle-class, suburban family accustomed to having a nice car, a nice home, and living in a community with uniformed policemen and firemen.
>
> "Indian reservation life is about as far from suburbia as one can get, on the average reservation," Nash said in an interview.
>
> The name Jane seldom is found on an Indian reservation. There are some named Dick. But these Indian children, and 80 percent of those

in our Indian schools come from non-English speaking homes, need materials related to their own daily occurrences.

"They are not accustomed to nice books, nice pictures, nice homes and the tribal policemen do not wear nice uniforms.

"There are many wonderful Indian values, such as sharing, that they should have available in material growing out of their own experiences. They should have materials dealing with their background, their traditions, and their heroes."

There is truth in Dr. Nash's comments. Too often, English has been taught through readers which were imitation of those used in English speaking countries to teach beginning English speaking children five or six years of age. Such readers were socially and intellectually much too immature for non-English speaking students by the time they knew enough of the new language to be ready for formal reading. At the same time these readers were linguistically much too hard for non-English speaking pupils who knew no English when they started to school. English speaking six-year-old children have at that age already learned to use the basic structural signals of the English language, and practically all of them have used, for at least two or three years, only English for all their language needs. These children do not need to have the basic English structures carefully arranged for step to step learning.

With the growing national and international interest in the teaching of English as a second language, publishers will be creating more material for the teaching of English as a second language. In the meantime teachers will continue to use textbooks provided for all children in our schools. There are advantages and disadvantages to this procedure.

Children need the stimulation, support, and organized approach of a comprehensive and thorough reading program. Actual specific procedures for handling materials in order to build up recognition responses to printed materials as representing the spoken words the children already have in their oral vocabulary, should be the function of any set of basic readers.

Basal reading series offer teachers a planned and co-ordinated reading program. It is not a hit and miss affair. Thus a basal reading program does not introduce a skill and drop it. Rather, a good series, provides over the years for gradual and continuous development of important reading skills. The thing to remember is that you cannot fit the child to the program, but must fit the program to the child. Because all children grow at different rates, and are ready for particular learnings at different times, a well-planned program offers opportunities for such learning on different occasions and in different settings.

Though basic readers have an important place in the reading program of a modern school, they do not constitute all of the materials used in a full-scale plan for reading activities, but must be supplemented by many different materials. Basal readers become, in most schools, the course of studying in reading skills for most grades--but this should be for the average student only. Slower learners and faster learners must be provided with supplementary materials. A few examples are given below of materials that will contribute to the developmental, recreational, and enrichment facets of a good reading program:

Supplementary readers

The children's own writings or dictated stories

Charts of various types

Newspapers and magazines

Picture dictionaries, dictionaries, and encyclopedias

Captions on film strips

A basic reading program must deal with both horizontal and vertical aspects of child growth in the development of reading abilities. You may describe a basic reading program horizontally in terms of activities planned for the first or the fourth grade, but it must also be planned in terms of sequential, vertical organization for all grades.

THE BILINGUAL CHILD AND HIS READING VOCABULARY

By: Dr. L. S. Tireman

(From L. S. Tireman, "The Bilingual Child and His Reading Vocabulary," Elementary English XXXII, No. 1 January 1955, 33-35. This was reprinted in Readings on Reading Instruction. Edited by Albert J. Harris--David McKay Company, Inc. New York 1963--by permission of Mrs. L. S. Tireman and the National Council of Teachers of English.)

Introduction

There is no magic formula to solve all the reading problems of non-English-speaking children. They must master the same reading skills as the English-speaking children master. The difference is that they must do so while learning a new language. Almost anything that can be said about the reading habits of one group applies also to the other. The principles of learning seem to be the same, but they vary in the degree of application. Success for the teacher of these pupils is compounded of an appreciation of their difficulties, a knowledge of the language and reading skills to be mastered, a vast amount of patience, and a real liking for children.

The reading problems of most bilingual children arise, generally, from the home situation. The economic status, the education of the parents, the general cultural level, the emotional pattern, the health standards, mobility, rural or urban residence, and the attitude toward the English language are interlocking factors. The product of these factors is the child with whom we work.

A foreign culture background does not mean inferiority; it means difference; in attitude of the parents toward the significance and value of education; in the extent of personal sacrifices needed to send children to school; in willingness to deprive oneself of the income he might receive if the child left school and went to work. These items bear directly on the matter of reularity of attendance and the age of dropping out of school and consequently on the child's reading ability. Another difference is in the language of the home. The mother tongue--the language of the hearth--is a dear possession. It carries with it intimate and cherished memories and is the vehicle of customary communication. Consequently parents make a real sacrifice when they give it up for another language in which they are less comfortable and less secure. Indeed they will not relinquish the mother tongue unless they are convinced that their children will profit from the increased opportunity to think and speak in the new language.

The economic status of the parents affects the reading situation of their child, English-speaking or non-English-speaking. It so happens that a large proportion of the non-English-speaking parents will fall in the low-income bracket with a resulting meager environment. This situation affects directly the number and kind of experiences the children have, the amount and kind of available reading material, and the number of years the children can remain in school.

Because of the considerations mentioned, the average non-English-speaking child will not perfect reading skills as quickly as the English-speaking child. His difficulties will persist for many years both in easily recognized forms as well as the more subtle ones. One of the most fundamental problems relates to the matter of vocabulary. In its most readily recognized aspects this appears as a lack of English words. In its more subtle aspects, it refers to the inability to distinguish between shades of meaning as expressed by words. As is well known, we do not get meaning from the printed word, we put meaning into the printed symbols. The odd little characters, d-o-g, mean nothing at first. But through many and varied experiences, both joyous and sad, the word becomes meaningful.

In any case, vocabulary growth is dependent upon experiences, real and synthetic. If the home environment of the bilingual child provided only meager experiences, the school must compensate by a rich and satisfying program. The collecting and care of a science corner will make some words meaningful but otherwise are empty. Anyone can learn the word fish, but meaning comes through observing and studying them. The word Korea does not mean the same to me as it does to a man who fought in Korea.

The non-English-speaking child lives in a strange world where many words are vague, indistinct, foggy, cloudy, and obscure. Is it any wonder that he is frustrated and emotionally disturbed? Here are samples:

blot -- "Where blood come" (clot)

spool -- "A place where there is water" (pool)

habit -- "We habit be quiet" (had better)

rack -- "When they go fast you rack (wreck) the car"

won -- "The Indians have a wigwon"

task -- "They cut the tasks of the elephant"

bushel -- "The name of a big bush"

climate -- "The natives climate (climbed up) trees to get coconuts"

oyster -- "A kind of bird in the zoo" (ostrich)

run on the bank, run in a stocking, a home run, run a race, a run for your money.

The cross-eyed bear (the cross I'd bear)

If one examines these misconceptions, he finds many that are logical. You and I make the same type of error when we speak in a foreign language. Example: That famous salutation of one of our leading American politicians when he addressed an audience south of the border "Senoras y caballos" (The salutation "Senoras y calalleros" meaning "Ladies and gentlemen." The speaker confused the second word which means horses.)

These are only the overt signs. The tragedy of the situation is that for every misconception we note there are dozens, and probably hundreds, that occur to confuse the reader and we are not aware of them. We only know that the child fails to comprehend and are irritated or sympathetic depending upon our own understanding of the problem.

A teacher of bilingual-speaking children will find much meat in an experimental study by Gray and Holmes. (William S. Gray and Eleanor Holmes, The Development of Meaning Vocabularies in Reading, University of Chicago, 1938). Miss Holmes presents experimental evidence which shows conclusively that "specific guidance is of relatively more value to pupils of limited initial achievement" than an indirect method. By specific vocabulary instruction, Miss Holmes means (1) to form clear, vivid associations between word meanings and their oral and written symbols; (2) to promote the meanings of words and phrases; and (3) to provide opportunity for pupils to use the new words appropriately in either oral or written form.

Experienced teachers find some of the following techniques to be especially helpful:

1. tape recording
2. vocabulary notebooks in which all new words are listed, with synonyms or definitions and sentences.
3. exercises in selecting accurate words to express meaning
4. listing words often confused
5. listing words with similar words to show differences in meaning
6. listing words with antonyms
7. listing descriptive words
8. dramatization with specific attention to choice of words
9. oral exercises with the specific intention of using the new words to be studied
10. habitual use of the dictionary

This program takes much time. The teacher must decide which is more important for the child--to learn to pronounce mechanically a large number of meaningless words or to use a smaller number with understanding. Many a social science lesson in the upper grades is sterile because the teacher has followed the former practice. In the schools of Europe where bilingualism exists, it is a common custom to use the content subjects for language instruction. For example: a history lesson may provide something to talk about in the language that is being learned. They feel that it is rather purposeless to try to talk unless one has something to say.

The writer finds phonics and structural analysis useful for the English speaking child who has an adequate oral vocabulary. For, as he analyzes the word, he has the possibility of recognizing it through the ear. However, for the non-English speaking child who has a limited oral vocabulary, these tools are less helpful.[1]

Accordingly, we recommend for the bilingual child the introduction of many experiences to increase his meaningful vocabulary and in addition, a direct attack on these words to fix them in his vocabulary.

In summary:

1. Meaning is attached to words by numerous and varied experiences.
2. If the home environment is meager, the school must compensate.
3. Experimental evidence supports the direct attack on vocabulary.
4. Such a program should receive major attention in all subjects and in all grades throughout the elementary school and probably in the secondary school.

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[1] The author of this bulletin does not agree with this statement of Dr. Tireman's. See comments on teaching of phonics above.

VII PHONIC GENERALIZATIONS

This section of the bulletin will review in detail the content of phonics, as used in the teaching of reading. The resume' is presented in compact form so teachers may use it as a quick reference. You will find many of the generalizations of limited value. Of course you should give careful attention to the many exceptions to most of the generalizations. This resume' does not attempt to answer the question of which generalizations primary children can apply in working out the pronunciation of unknown words. The answer to this question will come only through experimentation in your own classroom.

While not directly related to the teaching of reading to bilingual students, the following review was made by Dr. Theodore Clymer, Professor of Education at the University of Minnesota. He made a study of the phonic generalizations taught in the primary grades in four widely used sets of basic readers.

Five general types of generalizations emerged from the study of the teachers' manuals. These types dealt with:

(1) vowels

(2) consonants

(3) endings

(4) syllabication

(5) miscellaneous relationships

Arbitrary decisions were made in assigning some generalizations to one or more of the five types. (This you will find the case in the following outline of the content of phonics.)

After elimination was made of the miscellaneous types of generalizations, a total of one hundred twenty-one statements were located. Note was made of the wide variations of grade level of introduction, emphasis, and phrasing of the generalizations. Of the fifty different vowel generalizations, only eleven were common to all four series. None of these eleven was presented initially at the same half-year grade level in all four series. Some series gave a much greater emphasis to the generalizations than did other series. One series introduced only thirty-three of the one hundred twenty-one generalizations, while another presented sixty-eight. These comments were not made to detract from the usefulness of basic materials, but simply to point out their differences. These differences call for careful adjustment in the classroom when pupils are moved from one set of materials to another. Teachers who change from Series A to Series B may need to make some important revisions in their word recognition programs.

CONSONANTS

The simplest way to identify the consonants is to state that they are all the letters in the alphabet with the exception of the vowels. Consonants are relatively consistent in the sounds they produce as compared with vowels. You will find this is true of b, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, t, v, w, y and z, which nearly always records the sounds heard in the initial sound of the following words:

be
do
*four
home
jam
kite
late
man
not
pay
room
**time
very
we
yes
***zoo

* In of, f has the sound of v.

** The consonant t usually has the sound of ch (tsh) when it comes before ure as in picture.

*** The consonant z may also have the sound of s or zh in words like waltz and azure.

B

1. When b follows m in the same syllable it is silent:

climb dumb

2. When b comes before t in a syllable it is silent:

debt doubt

H

1. Sometimes h is silent at the first of a word:

heir hour

(One authority states: If a word starting with h was absorbed from the Latin, the h is sounded; if from the Old French it is silent.)

2. When h is preceded by g at the beginning of a word it is silent:

ghost ghastly

3. When h is preceded by k at the beginning of a word it is silent:

khaki khan

4. When h is preceded by r at the beginning of a word it is silent:

rhubarb rhyme

K

1. If k is the initial letter in a word and followed by n the k is silent:

knife know

2. In some words the silent k helps to distinguish between homonyms:

nit - knit night - knight not - knot nap - knap new - knew

L

1. You will find that l is sometimes silent when it precedes another consonant in the same syllable:

Psalm folk

N

1. When n follows m in the same syllable it is silent:

column condemn

2. In words of more than one syllable, the consonant n at the end of a syllable often has the sound of ng when it comes just before g or k:

finger wrinkle

P

1. If p is the initial letter in a word and is followed by s it is silent:

psychic psalm

T

1. When t precedes ch in a syllable it is silent:

match ditch

2. The letter t is sometimes silent when it follows s:

glisten listen

W

1. W is a tricky letter in that it is sometimes silent when in a syllable with o.

show bowl

(Context clues and word meaning can be used here.)

C

The consonant c has no real sound of its own. Its two sounds are associated with other letters.

1. One of the sounds is called the soft sound and is usually associated with the letter s.

When c is followed by e, i, or y it usually has the soft sound.

center cider cymbal

2. When c is followed by letters other than e, i or y, or is the final letter in a syllable, it usually has the hard sound:

cat pact arc

X

Another letter that lacks a distinct sound of its own is x

1. In technical words x sometimes records the sound associated with the letter z:

xylophone xylidine

2. One of the commonly recorded sounds of x is represented by the letter combination of ks:

fix ax

3. When x is followed by a vowel or a silent h, you will find it has the sound represented by the letter combination gz:

exercise exhibit

G

The letter g has a "soft" and hard sound. The following is usually true:

1. The sound of g is soft when it is followed in a syllable by e, i, or y:

gesture giant gym

2. If g is the final letter in a syllable or is followed in the syllable by any other letter than e, i or y, it has the "hard" sound.

gable ghost pig

3. The letter g can also be a silent letter. The most common instance is when g is followed by n in a syllable:

gnaw reign

D

The letter d records three sounds:

1. Its usual sound is hard in words like:

doll do

2. When the consonant sound preceding d in a syllable is that of a voiceless consonant (s, k, t, p) the letter d sounds like t

helped missed looked puffed

3. The d sometimes has the sound of j as in:

soldier

S

The letter s also has more than one sound:

1. The most common sound of s is found in see (voiceless) when it is at the beginning of a word or a syllable:

see   insist

2. The consonant s usually has the sound of s in see (voiceless) when it is the first sound in a group of consonants. (The digraph sh is an exception.)

rest   mask

3. If the consonant s comes just before ure in a word it may have the sound of sh (voiceless) or zh (voiced). (It may also have the sound of sh or zh in such words as sugar, usual, and tissue.)

Measure   sure   pleasure

4. The other sound of s is heard in such words as:

heads   wags   pads

Voiced and Voiceless Consonants

In his technical analysis of sounds the phonetician refers to certain of the consonants as being voiced; to others as being unvoiced or voiceless. Such a classification is based on the state of the vocal cords when these consonants are pronounced. When the voiced consonants are sounded, the vocal cords are drawn together and they vibrate (d,z,g,v, and b). On the other hand, when the voiceless consonants are sounded (s,k,f and p) the vocal cords remain open and are silent.

Double Consonants

When words contain a double consonant, only one of the letters is sounded, the other is silent. (In multisyllable words the consonant sounded is usually the one in the accented syllable as in com′- mu - nist.)

stiff   stress   hopping

VOWEL SOUNDS

Short Vowels

ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, ŭ.

The following generalizations are based on the syllable as the unit of pronunciation

1. If there is only one vowel in a syllable, and it does not come at the end of the syllable, it is usually short.

cat pet pig mop nut

2. When a syllable ends in nce or dge, the preceding vowel is usually short.

Another way of stating this in a more general way is to say that in words of one syllable having vowels separated by more than two consonants the first vowel is usually short:

badge fence fringe dodge fudge

3. When a syllable ends in ous, the ou assumes the sound of short u.

jealous dangerous callous

4. When a comes after w in words of one syllable it usually has the sound of short ŏ. This is true unless ll or r comes just after it:

wad was wand want

5. If the spelling ie ends words of more than one syllable, you usually hear the sound of short i:

prairie brownie cookie

Long Vowels

ā, ē, ī, ō, ū.

The long vowel sounds are those heard in the initial part of age, eat, ice, open and use. The following generalizations should be given special emphasis in phonics instruction:

1. If there is only one vowel in a syllable, and it comes at the end of the syllable, it is usually long. This is especially true of e, o, and y.

she solo my

2. When words of one syllable contain two or more vowels the first vowel is usually long. All other vowels are silent. The vowels may have one or more consonants between them or they may be together. (Note: You will find that when u is the first of one or more vowels in a word it will sometimes have its long sound or the sound of o͞o as in do.

(Example: due)

rain meat pie rope cube

3. In line with the above generalization some teachers like to develop another generalization. This applies to words of one syllable containing two vowels, the second of which is the final e; the first vowel is usually long and the final e is silent:

take Pete pine pole tube

4. In words of one syllable when o comes before ld and mb at the end of the word, it usually has the long sound. (In line with this when mb is at the end of words of one syllable, the b is silent):

mold told comb

5. (a) At the end of a word when o comes before two consonants it usually has the sound of o as in song.

(b) However, it may also have the sound of o as in post and most.

6. In a syllable where ld, nd, or gh is preceded by i it usually has the long sound:

wild find sight

7. When the spelling ey is found at the end of words of one syllable it usually has the sound of long a:

prey they whey

8. When ei appears together in a syllable and is not preceded by c, it sometimes assumes the sound of long a:

freight vein weight

9. If the letter combination ie is found within a syllable the i will sometimes be silent and the e will have a long sound:

field chief piece

10. When the spelling ay comes at the end of a word or syllable it frequently has the sound of long a:

say saying pay payment may maybe

11. The long sounds of u or o are usually found for the spelling eau:

beau beautiful

12. One unusual sound in English is for the spelling of eigh. It is usually heard as the sound of long a.

eight weight

Functioning of Y as a Vowel

The letter y records its consonant sound as heard in the initial part of words like yes and year. Teachers of reading also need to teach students that y in many instances records sounds associated with the vowels.

1. If the spelling ye, uy, and y are found at the end of one syllable words they usually have the sound of long i:

dye buy try

2. When multisyllabic words end in y its sound usually approaches the long sound of e:

merry quietly heavy

(Many teachers' manuals for basal readers give this final sound as short i. When used in sentences such as, "The baby bird could not fly," the final sound is de-emphasized and is like the sound of short i. However, when words such as merry or baby are pronounced alone their final sound approaches the long sound of e.)

merry quietly heavy

3. In other instances y will assume the sound of short i:

myth system lymph

The Schwa Sound Of The Vowels

The use of the schwa ə as a symbol for both the unstressed and stressed vowel is rapidly increasing. Over time, the sounds of vowels in unaccented syllables have been de-emphasized and in most instances, they have shifted to the schwa sound. Probably the best way to describe the schwa sound is to say it is very much like an unstressed short u sound, and it is heard in such words as:

about taken imitate button column

Occurring with less frequency is the shift of vowel sounds, again in unaccented syllables, to the sound of a short i (debate, baggage). Although of less importance, because it occurs less frequently, this change too should be noted in phonics instruction. Otherwise, when attention is not given to emphasized vowel sounds, the pronunciation of words resulting from phonic analysis can be very artificial. In some instances, the pronunciation might be so sufficiently artifical that the child fails to recognize the word as one that is already a part of his listening or speaking vocabulary.

GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT EXCEPTIONS

Generalizations about vowel sounds do not always "work" in the analysis of an unknown word.

1. If a comes before ll or lk in a word, it will, most of the time, have the sound of ô as in all.

walk talk ball fall

2. Usually the spellings au and aw have the sound of ô as in caught and saw.

sauce caw pauper awful

Vowel-Consonant Combinations

As mentioned in the generalizations above, there are some consonants that affect the sound of vowels. They are r, w and l.

1. Usually the spelling or has the sound of the or as in for. The exceptions to this are when it has w just before it or the letter e right after it.

   nor cork corner doctor

2. If or is preceded by w it usually has the sound of the ur as in cur:

   work word worm worship

3. The student will have to use word meaning and content clues for deciding which vowel sound to use when the spelling or has e after it at the end of a word or syllable.

   a. The spelling or followed by e at the end of word or syllable has the sound of ōr as in more:

      Examples: store, core

   b. The same spelling (or) also has the sound of ōr as in porch and fort:

4. If the spelling ar is not preceded by w it usually has the sound of the ar as in car:

   far darn bark harm

5. The spelling ar when it comes just before e at the end of a sentence has the sound of ar as in care:

   wares mares bare

6. Usually the spellings er, ir and ur have the sound of ur as in cur:

   merge mirth churn

7. If the spelling ir precedes e at the end of a word or a syllable it usually has the sound of the ir in spire:

   hire mire tire fire

8. If the spelling ur precedes e at the end of a word, it usually has the sound as in the following words:

   sure pure endure

9. In multisyllable words ending in the spellings ar, or, ar or ur they usually have the sound of er in better:

   scholar distemper reflector murmur

10. The spelling ear may have one of three sounds:

    clear bear earthen

11. Usually the spelling air has the sound of ar as in rare:

stair lair flair

12. If you find the spelling ar, er, ir and or followed by another r the preceding vowel will usually have its short sound:

sparrow derrick

Diphthongs

For phonics, the most useful definition of a diphthong is that it refers to the sound of a vowel combination, which is unlike the sound of either of the individual vowels. Attention to diphthongs is important not only because of their particular sounds but because they function as a single vowel when phonic generalizations are being applied. For example: if two unfamiliar words were noise and choice, the oi combination in each would function as a single vowel. As a result, the oi would have its diphthong sound, and the final e would be silent.

Another authority states this generalization as: A diphthong is a vowel, or a group of vowels, that stands for two speech sounds in a one syllable word or in a syllable:

1. oi - (oil)
2. oy - (toy)
3. ey - (they)
4. ou - (out)
5. ow - (cow)
6. ew - (few)

(In 5 and 6 of the above the w functions as a vowel. The spellings ou and ow may also have the sound of long (o) as in pour and know.)

VOWEL SOUNDS NOT GOVERNED BY GENERALIZATIONS

As stated before in the pronunciation of the vowel, or group of vowels, the spelling cannot be covered by rules. The reader will have to use word meaning and context clues to decide which vowel sound to use in certain words. (This is very difficult for the student learning English as a second language. This is why it is so important for the student to have the word in his speaking vocabulary before being exposed to it in print.)

1. In addition to the sounds of o as described above, it also may have the sound of o͞o as in do or the sound of ŭ as in come:

do o͞o some ŭ

2. This is also true of the letter a which may sometimes have the sound of ĕ as in any.

any -- many

3. In words ending in such endings as ine and ice and the syllable is accented, the vowel i may have the sound of long e:

ice -- police

ine -- Pauline

4. The vowel u as has been explained above may have the sounds of: ū, o͞o, ŭ.

Sometimes it will also be heard as o͝o as in pull.

full o͝o

5. The spelling oo usually will have the o͞o sound as in pool or o͝o in look. In addition, the vowels oo may have the sound of ō as in door or of ŭ as in blood.

floor -- ō

flood -- ŭ

6. The spelling ou may have the sound as in shout. It also may have the following sounds:

four ō

you o͞o

thought ô

cough ŏ̂

rough ŭ

7. The spelling ow may have the sound of ou as in cow; in addition it may have the sound of ō as in show:

how -- ou

slow -- ō

8. Following the generalization that when two vowels come together in a one syllable word, the first vowel is long and the other vowels are silent. Example: clean. In addition the spelling ea may have the sound of:

great - ā

bread - ĕ

9. The same applies to the spelling ei. It may have the sound governed by the basic rule as in seize. In addition the spelling ei may have the following sounds:

veil - ā

heifer - ĕ

foreign - ĭ

10. The spelling ew may have two sounds as heard in:

pew - ū

flew - o͞o

11. The spelling ie may have the following sounds:

die - ī

friend - ĕ

chief - ē

cookie - ĭ (When word is pronounced in isolation.)

CONSONANT COMBINATIONS

The teacher of reading will need to teach students two types of consonant combinations. These are called consonant digraphs and consonant blends.

Consonant Digraphs

A digraph according to the phonetician, is a combination of two letters that has a sound unlike that of either of the individual letters. For the teacher of reading, however, a better definition would be:

> A consonant digraph is a group of two consonants forming a single speech sound in a word or in a syllable:

sh (she)

th (thin)

qu (quiet)

ck (sack)

ng (sing)

ch (chap)*

wh (what)**

gh (rough)

gu (guess)***

ph (phone)

* ch sometimes has the sound of k as in chord, or of sh as in machine.

** wh usually has the sound of h when o comes just after it, as in who and whole.

*** The digraph gu may also have the sound of gw, as in Guam.

Consonant Blends

Other combinations of consonants appear in our language so frequently that, even though the sound of each consonant is maintained, they are usually emphasized together in the blending of two sounds and in a couple of instances three sounds. They are thus referred to as consonant blends, and include:

bl - black

br - brought

cl - clue

cr - cream

sm - smart

sn - snail

sp - as in spoon and wasp

st - as in stay and mist

dr - dream

dw - dwarf

fl - flee

fr - from

gl - glee

gr - grow

pl - play

pr - pray

sc - like s as in scene

sc - like sk, as in scalp

sk - as in skate and task

sl - slip

sw - swing

tr - tree

tw - tweet

sch - like sk in school

scr - scratch

spl - splash

spr - spring

squ - squash

str - string

tch - watch

thr - three

Spellings Standing for Consonants

In some words spellings stand for consonant sounds:

a. dge and ge (at end of word) have the sound of j:

ledge budge

b. wr-when a word begins with this spelling, the w is silent and the first sound in the word is the sound of r:

write wrong wrap

c. kn - gn -- when a word begins with these spellings the k and g are silent and the first sound in the word is the sound of n:

knife gnaw

d. se - when a word ends with this spelling the e is silent and the s has the sound of either s or z:

s as in see z as in rose.

e. nk - when a word ends in the spelling nk it will have the sound nk as in bank:

think spank

SYLLABIFICATION

Phonetic analysis of a totally unfamiliar word may begin by a division of the word into syllables. (A syllable is a single letter or a group of letters pronounced as part of a word or it may be a whole word: hop, i-rate, tom-a-hawk.) Once the division is made, each syllable may be analyzed, and then the syllable can be blended into the word itself.

With a child learning English as a second language, generalizations about sounds and about syllabification are most productive if the child has the word in his spoken vocabulary. For example, if the child had the word tomahawk in his oral vocabulary, then his skill in phonetic analysis, combined with his knowing the word in its spoken form, would be sufficient to help him identify the word the first time he encountered it in written form.

In the beginning the teacher will use monosyllabic words to illustrate various points of phonic analysis. (There are many words with only one syllable that the child will encounter in reading.) However, with monosyllabic words you are unable to demonstrate an essential characteristic of letter-sound generalizations about the English language. For example, the three letter spelling combination of a, r, and e usually sounds as it does in care when these three letters are in the same syllable of a word, but each has its own sound when they appear in different syllables (a - re - na). Another example would be the letter combination aw. It has a particular sound when it appears together (aw - ful), but each letter has its own sound when appearing in separate syllables (a - wake).

Vowel sounds in words are sometimes affected by the stress, or lack of stress, placed on the syllable when it is pronounced. In words of two or more syllables, one of them is usually accented. (There will be a complete section on the use of accent in this bulletin.)

How is the division of words made? Within the written form of words there are certain visual clues that suggest correct syllabification. Statements about these clues are generalizations that are very important for the teaching of the communication skills of listening, talking, reading and writing. These generalizations are listed as follows:

1. Each syllable must have a sounded vowel; this may come from the spelling combination of one or more vowels:

   brisk fee' ble chick en

2. Double Consonants:

   a. If two consonants are found between two vowels, a syllable may be made between the two consonants:

      scar let ig' no rant

   b. Words may be divided between double consonants. Usually only one of the consonants is sounded and it is the one in the accented syllable:

      run' ner

3. Each syllable must have a vowel sound, so words may be divided between a vowel and a consonant in order to place a vowel in each syllable. Usually when dividing between a vowel and a consonant each new syllable will begin with a consonant:

   ba by   sta ble   e lect

4. When consonant digraphs or consonant blends are found between two vowels they usually are not divided, but remain in the same syllable.

   a shamed   ma chine   se cret

5. If a single consonant is preceded and followed by vowels, the consonant sound usually goes with the vowel following it:

   e lect   be gin   u nite

6. Two vowels may be divided if they do not form one speech sound or a diphthong:

   (oi, oy, ey, ou, ow, ew):

   su et   ra di o   di e tar y

7. When the letter x is preceded and followed by vowels, its sound usually is in the same syllable as the preceding vowel:

   tax i   ox en   ex it

8. If a word ends with le and is preceded by a consonant, that consonant usually forms a syllable with the le:

   ta ble   crip ple   gar gle

9. You will find prefixes and suffixes generally form separate syllables:

   un tie   shoe less   re do ing

10. The suffix ed needs a special generalization:

    a. If preceded by d or t it forms a separate syllable:

       want ed   cord ed

    b. When ed is not preceded by d or t it does not form a separate syllable:

       worked   banged

11. In pronouncing compound words (playground) divide the word into syllables. Then blend the sounds of the syllables together as you would in any word of more than one syllable.

12. In pronouncing contractions (don't, can't, etc.), look for a whole word first, sound it and blend the sound, or sounds, of other letters in the word.

13. When a syllable ends in a vowel, the vowel is usually long: ba con. (This is called an open syllable.) When the syllable ends in a consonant, the vowel is usually short: af ter. (This is called a closed syllable.)

PRINCIPLES OF ACCENT

Locating the syllables in a word that get special stress (accent) is part of the job involved in arriving at the correct pronunciation of the word. (This is especially important for the child learning to read English as a foreign language.) Unfortunately this is a difficult task as the stress patterns of American English words show as many variations as do the sounds of the letters. One authority states, "There are even some words, such as detail and address, for which a pattern has not yet been definitely established." In spite of these kinds of irregularities, the following generalizations regarding the location of accents are offered. (Some knowledge of generalizations about accents can be helpful to the bilingual in his reading. These are not infallible rules.)

1. When two like consonants follow the first vowel, it usually means an accented first syllable, and a short vowel in that syllable.

   Example: bŏn′ net

2. When there are two like consonants before an ending or a suffix, there is usually an accented final syllable of the root word, and there is a short vowel sound in that syllable.

   Example: ō mĭt′ ted

3. When there are two vowels in the last syllable of a word, usually the accent is on the final syllable and a long sound is in that syllable.

   Example: a māze′

4. In a word where there is a single consonant before an ending or a suffix, the vowel usually has a schwa sound, in an unaccented final syllable, or a long vowel sound and a dropped final "e" in an accented final syllable.

   Example: or′ bit ing in vīt′ ed

5. In the English language, words of three or more syllables usually are accented on one of the first two syllables.

   Example: per′ son al

6. In the inflected (prefixes or suffixes) or derived forms, the primary accent usually falls on or within the root word.

   Example: rēa′ son able

7. In compound words, a common pattern of accent is a primary accent on or within the first syllable and a secondary accent on or within the second part.

   Example: bāse′ ball′

8. The grammatical function affects the pronunciation of certain words which accounts for further variability in accented syllables.

   a. He was thought to be a rebel, but when the time came he did not rebel.

   b. The content of the book was so interesting it left her feeling content.

9. In words that end in tion, xion, sion, the accent usually comes on the next to the last syllable.

   Example: re jec′ tion   su per vi′ sion   com plex′ ion

SYLLABLES WITH SPECIAL SOUNDS

1. Special Sounds for tion.

   a. The spelling tion usually has the sound shun unless it follows the sound of s in a word:

      at ten tion   dic tion ary

   b. If the spelling tion comes after the sound of s in a word it usually will have the sound of chŭn.

      di ges tion   ques tion

2. When words have final syllables of ble, cle, kle, tle, you will find the e silent and the l is the last sound in the word:

   ta ble   cy cle   cack le   bat tle

3. In spellings such as: tial, tious, tian, tient, cious, ciate and cial, the letters ti and ci usually have the sound of sh:

   in i tial   am bi tious   Ti tian   pa tient   con scious

   ap pre ciate   spe cial

4. In the spelling tain the ai usually has the sound of long a if the syllable is accented. If the syllable is unaccented the spelling ai will have a sound almost like that of short u, or the letters are silent:

   re tāin′   cur′tain

5. When the accent falls on the syllable ex it usually has the sound of its own name ĕks (x):

   ex′pedite   ex′cavate   ex′ecute

6. When the syllable ex is unaccented and precedes a consonant it usually has the sound of eks or iks:

   ex pect′   ex crete′   ex hale′

7. When the syllable ex is the unaccented syllable just before a vowel it usually has the sound of egz or igz.

ex act′ ex empt′ ex ert′

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES

Until students develop considerable skill in using the dictionary, the base words used in teaching the addition of prefixes and suffixes should be familiar ones.

Root words are words from which other words are formed and to which a suffix or a prefix may be added. To a root word more than one prefix or a suffix may be added, or a prefix-suffix may be added.

tract	tractor	tractors
tract	extract	extraction
lock	unlock	unlocked

In pronouncing a word that has a suffix or a prefix, first find the root word, decide which prefix or suffix has been added, then blend the whole word smoothly.

Common Prefixes

A prefix is placed before a root word to make a new word, thus changing its meaning. The prefix may be in the form of a single vowel or a syllable placed before the root word. Usually a prefix forms a syllable:

a	awake	in	inhuman
ab	absent	ir	irresponsible
ad	admit	mid	midnight
be	beside	mis	mistake
co	coexist	non	nonsense
com	commingle	pre	precede
con	context	pro	proceed
cor	correlate	re	return
de	delay, depart	sub	subway
dis	dislike	un	unhappy
en	enjoy		
ex	extend		
fore	forenoon		

il	illiterate
im	impersonal

Common Suffixes

A suffix is placed at the end of a root word to change its meaning and to form a new word. After listing the most common groups of letters used as suffixes, a list of generalizations will be given governing their pronunciation.

able	lovable	ic	heroic
age	bondage	ier	cashier
al	musical	ing	running
an	European	ish	girlish
ance	allowance	less	careless
ancy	abundancy	ly	portly
dom	kingdom	ment	amazement
ed	looked, called, wanted	n	known
eer	auctioneer	ness	blackness
en	broken	or	tailor
ence	dependence	ous	famous
ency	emergency	s	cats, cabs
ent	excellent	sion	tension
er	farmer	teen	sixteen
ery	hatchery	th	growth
es	dishes	tion	adoption
ess	princess	ty	seventy
est	loudest	xion	complexion
ful	thankful	y	soapy
ible	terrible		

In teaching such structural elements as root, prefix, suffix, it is important past the primary level to explain to the children the meanings of these words:

prefix (to fix before)

suffix (to attach to)

root (the body of the word)

Do not underestimate or insult the intelligence of your students by describing these elements as "little parts," or "little words before and after.:"

Generalizations About the Uses and Sounds of Suffixes

The suffix ed:

When added to certain words it shows past time. It may have three sounds:

(1) When added to words ending in any voiceless consonant except t, (voiceless consonants p, k. f, s, h) ed has the sound of t.

winked dished tipped puffed hissed

(2) When added to words ending in any voiced consonant except d or a vowel sound, (voiced consonants b, g, v, z, m, n, l, r, w, j) ed has the sound of d.

begged spilled

An easy way to train oneself to recognize the difference from voicelessness and voicing is to cover the ears tightly with the hands and say aloud, a pair of words like pack: bag. A strong buzz is audible throughout the word bag, but only for the vowel in pack. (All vowels are voiced.) Or the vibration can be felt by pressing them gently against the "Adams Apple."

(3) When ed follows the consonants d or t it adds another syllable.

sanded wanted

The Suffix s:

When added to certain words to make a new word it may have two sounds:

(1) After voiceless consonants (p, t, k, f, s, h) it has the sound of s as in sin:

tops staffs stacks

(2) After voiced consonants (b, d, g, v, z, m, n, l, r, w, j) or vowels (all vowels are voiced) it has the sound of z:

clues suns kegs toes

The Suffix es:

The suffix es is usually added instead of s to root words ending with spirants (letters with hissing sounds) or with sounds that do not blend well with the sound of s. (voiceless f, th, s, sh) or (voiced v, th, z) (also z as in azure). Also es is added to many words ending in e, fe, ch, or z.

(1) Meaning more than one:

wishes   ditches

(2) When added to action words it tells that he, she, or it, does what the root word shows:

she runs   he runs   it falls

(3) It has the sound of ex or iz when it is added to words ending with a spirant (letters with hissing sounds):

hushes   patches   glasses

(4) It has the sound of s as in sin when added to words ending with a voiceless consonant sound other than the sound of the spirant:

pops   mates   cakes

(5) It has the sound of z when added to a word ending with a voiced consonant sound or a vowel sound:

slides   pies   toes

Generalizations About Changes in Root Words Before Suffixes are Added:

1. Words of one syllable having a single vowel just before the last consonant usually doubles the consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel:

   hop   hopping   hopped

2. Words ending in f or fe usually change these endings to v before adding the suffix es:

   half - halves   wife - wives

3. If a word's last syllable is accented and ends with a single consonant having a single vowel before it, the final consonant is usually doubled before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel:

   submit´ - submitted   regret´ - regretting

4. If a word ends in a silent e the e is usually dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel:

   rope   roping   roped

   nudge   nudging   nudged

5. One syllable words with a long vowel sound and ending with e just after c or g, the e is usually kept when the suffix begins with o, a, or a consonant:

   strange - strangely

   peace - peacable

6. If a word ends in e having any vowel except e just before the final e, e is usually dropped before adding a suffix beginning with a consonant:

true - truly

7. In words ending in y, preceded by a consonant, the y is changed to i before adding a suffix:

fry - fries

cry - cried

8. If a word ends in y, the y is usually kept with adding a suffix beginning with i:

scurry - scurrying

baby - babyish

cry - crying

VIII YOUR UPPER GRADE BILINGUAL STUDENT

Your bilingual students, like other girls and boys in early adolescence, have intense concerns. Many times at this age they differ from their English speaking classmates in that their sphere of expanding interests are limited to their culturally impoverished backgrounds. They have strongly emotional reactions to everyday experiences. The nature of their physical growth creates problems for them because they are usually one or two years retarded as to age grade placement. Girls are conscious of their appearance. They may be aware for the first time that their clothes are not just exactly like other girls of the dominant culture. Boys are shy and very conscious about change of voice. Both strive to be accepted by their peers and are very aware of each other. Each student thinks his problems are unique in his youthful self-consciousness. Through reading, and understanding what they read, they can find gratifying assurance that others of their age have had the same covert uncertainties and aspirations.

Your Indian student may find the ideas of adults only half-way acceptable. They are confused by the conflicting demands of teachers and parents. How can they feel any degree of self-confidence when the demands, commands and reprimands of the grownups in his life are often inharmonious.

Different from your students from the dominant culture, your Indian adolescents may not be curious about the world of work outside their own sphere of experience. Aspects of the worth of work and its service seldom loom large in their thoughts. They speculate on immediate employment and immediate satisfaction of desires rather than on how to prepare for future jobs.

They are curious about how the non-Indian lives and are interested in people a little older, who live adventurously doing the things they dream of doing. They admire the conquering hero -- and identify with him -- regardless of race or creed. This is borne out by Indian students yelling for the cavalry as they chase the marauding Apaches over the hill in a Western movie.

An Indian adolescent's sense of humor may differ from your other upper grade readers. Don't be chagrined when he laughs at you, not with you. However, he enjoys a misfit character in high misadventure. This is evident in their great love for comic characters such as Popeye and Huckleberry Hound. A play on words many times brings a favorable response which you will hear them repeating on the playgrounds.

Tall tales such as the adventures of characters similar to Pecos Bill are usually popular reading for adolescent Indian boys and girls. They enjoy fantasy as legends are such an important part of their own traditions.

Not all seventh and eighth grade students are willing readers. Among bilingual students this is often the case. In many of their homes there are few newspapers, magazines and books. A large percentage of the parents do not read English --or in fact any other language--as the written Indian languages, with the exception of Cherokee, are Whiteman made. These reluctant readers seek their satisifaction in places other than the school library. Being linguistically handicapped, they become limited learners. Much class discussion passes over their head and some become both discouraged and discouraging. There is a hard core of resistance to the persistent efforts of teachers to get them to read better, or to read at all. Comic books, picture magazines, television and movies vie with the printed page. The former usually are the winners; the printed page comes in a bad second as to interest catching.

Although reluctant readers are alike in their resistance to reading instruction, each is unique from his fellow-resistor in one or more ways. There are bright and dull bilingual students just as with your entire school population. You find many reading below their ability levels. Because of shyness and fear of ridicule, they are frequently poor classroom performers. Some excell in numbers, but are hard pressed to spell out the basic concepts of math in words. Artistic and mechanical talents often compensate for defeat in communication skills. Resentment is manifest in many different ways with these upper grade bilingual students who are not up to grade-level. Their reading disability causes embarrassment in school, and the constant pressure from teachers adds acid to the brew of their acerbity. Self-confidence is lacking to a dangerous degree. More than your native English speaking student, the bilingual child becomes failure-oriented when it comes to wrestling significance from the printed page.

When you study the Indian student's reading disabilities, you will find many times he is not lacking in word attack skills but is woefully inexperienced in reading for functional purposes. He sees no "real" purpose for reading. To him, it is something that adults think he should do. He cannot visualize how the use of words and control of ideas can help him achieve his self-set goals. These inadequate readers have pitiably limited vocabularies, both in English and their own language, and for them much supplementary assistance is needed. If they do not have the basic skills, these must be taught systematically, repetitiously and conscientiously. In cases where they have the basic skills but fail to use them effectively, help will be needed to assist them gain skill in applying their knowledge in order to develop independence and find pleasure and satisfaction in reading.

Only by knowing each reluctant reader in your class can you help him. The bilingual student is no exception especially here in Arizona where we have Spanish-speaking, as well as Indian students, from many different language groups. It is well to take into account the native language of the student, being taught, when you diagnose his reading disabilities. Since your students vary so in cultural background, native language and mores, this poses a different view on such student's personality and mentality, and you as a teacher then have a special responsibility to discover all you can about each individual student.

Your best source of information should be your cumulative records. You need to know what to look for: Has he attended school regularly? If he is Indian, has he moved often, from public to government schools and back again? Has the schooling been on or off reservation? Does he go with his parents when they take seasonal off reservation employment? What has been the philosophy of the schools that he has attended? Have you checked his health record?

Frequent or long-term absences, and late enrollment play havoc with reading achievement where no provision is made for make-up instruction. Check for hearing and sight disabilities; these are major factors in failure to achieve basic reading skills. Review closely results of standardized tests of reading achievement he has taken. What are his relative strengths and weaknesses as reported in these tests? Does his learning profile show he is an underachiever? Has his progress been steady or are there plateaus on the profile?

How does the Indian child in your classroom deal with his lessons and with people? Are his work habits efficient or does he busy himself with many "little things?" Observe his staying power and attention span. (Indian children are great weather forecasters and the spring of the year brings on much daydreaming.) Does he have broad and deep concepts in English or are his understandings superficial?

How is he accepted by other students and what are his attitudes towards them? One bilingual, who is not achieving in school may be bullying and disruptive, while another may be timid and withdrawn. His contributions, and his lack of expression, in group discussion are a good measure of his grasp of the communication skills in English.

As your knowledge of each student grows so will your competency in ability to give direction to the reading selections and activities you assign to assist your bilingual student.

LANGUAGE PERFORMANCE

Appraisal of the bilingual's performance with words should be assessed in detail just as your evaluation of his interests, anxieties, and emotional maturity. It is well to remember that you, as an upper grade teacher, must continue to sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four communication skills in their logical order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing. The bilingual child will reveal the stage of his vocabulary development in English as he reads aloud or talks. Be sure to check his comprehension by use of purpose questions for silent reading of sentences, paragraphs, and whole selections. Whatever his limitations in reading, your student learning English as a second language gains much through listening. One authority on second language learning suggests that at the upper grade level, a student should spend at least twenty percent of his time in listening, twenty percent in speaking, forty percent in reading orally and silently, and twenty percent in writing. Indian students must be encouraged and many times almost pressured to participate in group discussion. It is against many tribes' cultural patterns to disagree orally with another person's opinion so be sure to study the thought potential in critical response, if and when he makes them, to the response of others.

The bilingual student, who is not reading up to his grade level, has word trouble aplenty. By skipping over words he does not understand, he leaves gaps in the sentence he is trying to understand. Words as such have little or no interest to him. The glossary is many times useless to him even if he has the interest and ability to use it. Think how confusing the use of the dictionary becomes when an unknown word is defined in a number of words just as strange to the reader. He can be very inept in locating an entry in the dictionary, understanding the symbols and then ultimately arriving at the right definition. Context clues are almost as useless in arriving at the meaning of an unknown word, if he does not understand the content. His general vocabulary is usually very meager. Even the words he has in his spoken vocabulary he fails to recognize in print, if he has been taught by the say-see method. This makes his stock of sight words lower than his listening-speaking vocabulary. Another major problem is that he is apt to know only one or two of the many meanings an English word may have.

If he has had a bad attendance record his word-attack skills may be limited and uncertain. Above all if he was exposed to reading before he spoke English fluently, his auditory discrimination is often poor and his sound blending ability worse. With this lack of skill he will be unable to analyze a word and draw meaning from its parts: base, prefix or suffix. Compound words even when self-explanatory baffle him at times. You will find that frequently the bilingual reader's syllable sense is very poorly developed. If he does not know the phonemes of the English language, it is hard for him to hear parts of words clearly. Figurative language loses much of its delights and subleties in translation. Biblical and mythological allusions frequently mean nothing to him. How can he understand a piece of writing when he has missed possibly the general interpretation, and certainly the overtones of satire, indirect implications, and connotations?

Directly related to his lack of comprehension of what he has read, is his lack of ability to understand and participate in discussion about the reading material. Hard as he may try the retarded bilingual student can at best learn superficially such things as the names of characters, the plot of a short story or details of incidents from the story. Due to his lack of comprehension, his time spent in passive listening to his instructors and classmates is frequently wasted.

He has to be exposed to a word orally and written in meaningful context a number of times before it becomes a part of his speaking vocabulary. Much more than your native English speaking students, he must involve himself with your help, in vocabulary building. In addition, he needs skillful coaching in acquiring independence in word mastery. When he cannot attack the word independently and in addition does not know the meaning, his handicap is twofold.

Where your student does not speak English fluently, he commonly fails to make necessary connections in reading sentences. He does not mentally close the circuit between a subject and its verb, he finds no connection between a verb and its modifier. Spanish-speaking and Navajo students, because of the patterns of their native language, find it difficult to tie the modifier up with the term it was meant to modify. You can be sure if he has not grasped the melody of English in his spoken language, he has never mastered the signal code of punctuat[illegible] marks. With long sentences, it is very difficult for him to derive the exact meaning set forth by the writer.

The intent of a written sentence is many times lost on the second language student. It is very difficult for him to distinguish between a statement of fact and one of judgment. (This is not unique with the bilingual student.) Sweeping generalization will pass over his head like a gentle blowing breeze.

One of the major publishing companies of books for reluctant readers advises teachers to assess the several abilities of their less able readers and to relate parts of the whole selection, and reflect upon them. Consider his performance in the following as you plan your developmental reading program:

1. Sensing relations between main topics and supporting details
2. Finding and reading aloud a passage to probe a point
3. Illustrating a generalization
4. Generalizing soundly from concrete illustrations
5. Following the order of the author's thinking
6. Visualizing a scene described
7. Sensing a characterization through action and speech
8. Following clues to predict outcomes
9. Entering into the mood of a selection
10. Enjoying humor
11. Understanding the author's purpose
12. Detecting illogical relationships.

The Indian student, or should I say the bilingual student, poses his own special problems in your classroom. His problems are not the same as your English-speaking remedial students who are frequently either intellectually slow, or lazy and unmotivated. This much is true. Experienced teachers find, however, of some remedial and some Indian students: both may have serious emotional barriers to self-expression. It will be found many have not mastered completely the sound system of English, and frequently his English is unidiomatic. He may be fluent in a rather slangy brand of English, so fluent in fact that his proficiency in the substandard brand is a real barrier for him to overcome in speaking, reading and writing in the upper grades.

Teachers must offer a diversity in learning activities to hold their interest and give them real help to overcome their language problems. Their many weaknesses, such as limited attention span, unwillingness to try because of repeated failures, limited speaking vocabulary and word attack skills, these all suggest the need for multiple approaches toward learning goals. Experienced teachers have found that their classroom must become a reading laboratory where their linguistically handicapped adolescent receives systematic and continued help in acquiring the fundamental skills of reading if they have not been achieved in the lower grades. More than native speaking children, they need real experiences for the purpose of extending their horizons of knowledge about the world in which we live. To learn to read English you must speak the language. To build concepts and add to their understanding of what they read there, must be plentiful discussion in English. Only through mastering the basic signals of the language most thoroughly can the bilingual student really understand what he reads.

READING SKILLS

By Arizona state law, all elementary teachers in the state must have courses in Language Arts. It is recognized that teachers will be familiar with the reading skills to be taught at the upper-grade-level. Nevertheless, for the convenience of quick reference the upper-grade-level reading skills are outlined below:

I. Use of basic tools

   A. Glossary and dictionary
   B. Punctuation
   C. Pictures, maps, graphs, charts
   D. Reading, typographical devices

II. Comprehension and recall

   A. Main ideas or themes

      1. Topic
      2. Key words

   B. Important details
   C. Setting
   D. Sequence of events
   E. Cause and effect

III. Appreciation and critical reading

   A. Making inferences
   B. Understanding character

- C. Visualizing description
- D. Grasping mood or tone
- E. Understanding a point of view
- F. Making judgements
- G. Seeing relationships

IV. Vocabulary building

- A. Analyzing words
    1. Syllabication
    2. Letter sounds
    3. Roots and affixes
    4. Inflected forms
- B. Understanding word meaning
    1. Word origins
    2. Synonyms and antonyms
    3. Context clues
    4. Special vocabularies

No matter how sound your program of instruction is many of your upper-grade bilingual children will be unable to read successfully the average materials provided for these grades. Therefore, the basic material used is very important. In choosing this material the following criteria should be kept in mind:

1. These children are not non-readers. However, they do need specifically prepared materials.
2. The material should have a planned program of reading instruction.
3. Your students cannot be taught with materials too intellectually and socially immature for boys and girls of twelve to fifteen.
4. The material should include selections that will help build an interest in reading.
5. Specific information for teaching upper-grade reading skills should be included.
6. The material should provide a program flexible enough to be adapted to the able pupil who is retarded in reading but likely to "take off like a rocket" once his basic obstacles are overcome.
7. Materials must be chosen on the basis of the interest and appeal to early adolescents.
8. There should be a variety of literary types.
9. Readability should be a major criterion. (Some authors have substituted words to lighten the vocabulary and shorten sentences to aid in general comprehension without ruining the style, concept and purpose of each selection.)
10. Be sure there is a well planned teachers manual, and DO NOT BE AFRAID TO USE IT.

Sometimes teachers become so involved in testing to see if the students understand what they read that they forget that reading is but one facet of the communication skills, and that all language arts are only agents for communication of a thought. Encourage your students to pursue many kinds of activities growing out of their reading experience. If your students are so disadvantaged in the use of English that they cannot formulate their own questions to give a purpose to their reading, then by all means, read orally and give emphasis to teacher made questions. Unlike the English speaking students, many bilingual students do not approach reading because of their impoverished experiential background, with a purpose and with personal inquiries. You, the teacher, must supply this stimulus where it is lacking.

Expanding this idea further, you must not only supply a purpose for reading, but also you must vary your methods of motivation. Choral reading, dramatizing, and use of diversified written activities all help to prevent monotony.

Your bilingual child needs a routine that offers security. This he has had in the directed reading activities used by his lower-grade teachers. Your plan can be equally effective if adapted to the grade level of your students. Indian students, especially, need to have confidence in the competence of their teacher. They respect a teacher who has well-defined purposes and technical proficiency. They are more inclined to cooperate than students from the dominant culture, when they see a clear market path marked for them--with their responsibility made definite by the teacher.

Your teacher's manual certainly will not hamper your creativity in working with bilingual students. It is usually organized in terms of the steps of directed reading activity. You, the teacher, are in the best position to key the suggestions offered to the needs, interests and background of your class. Upper-grade and secondary teachers who have not been as well trained in the teaching of reading as they have in their own specialty will find the manual very beneficial in helping them plan for sequential skills development in their reading program.

With the fear of being redundant perhaps we should touch briefly on the five steps for teaching a good lesson offered in a manual planned to go with one of the widely used basic readers. As you read through the steps notice how the suggestions have been adapted to fit the needs of the bilingual students in the class. These suggestions are offered to be used with material that has been selected using the ten criteria listed earlier.

Your bilingual students may have faced failure so many times in the past that they will not be willing to take up the struggle of wading through new material without some assurance that the material can be read and will prove interesting and worthwhile. The Readiness Step should have a twofold purpose. First the student must be motivated, but what is the use of motivating the students to read if you have not anticipated their difficulties with concepts and vocabulary. You, as a teacher, must motivate the student to read by your initial enthusiastic presentation of a new selection. Secondary the teacher must prepare the student to read. Of course you certainly cannot remove all problems so that reading poses no challenge. Rather, you should try to anticipate and eliminate major obstacles to free, fluent and comprehensible reading. Never fear that there will be more challenges than you can possibly anticipate or prepare for with your student that is penalized because of his lack of understanding of English, limited reading vocabulary, and background information. Only after a good readiness period of motivation and preparation can your bilingual child strike out confidently into material that would otherwise defeat him.

The pictures and other visual aids applicable to the theme of your selection should be used more often with the bilingual reader than with your English speaking students. Examine and discuss these visual aids as you prepare your students to read. They may clarify concepts of size, time or location not familiar to students that have not had an opportunity to have experiences beyond their own environment.

Your introduction may be very simple. Have the students turn to an interesting picture in the selection. Good illustrations are invaluable as you work with these students. Through them you can develop both concepts and vocabulary. As you ask questions about the picture bring out new words by informal use. As you talk about the illustrations, pause to write the new words on the board, discussing their meaning and have the students say them orally. Do not go into analysis at this point as it might interrupt the flow of thought. (Reserve this for a later time.) This way your students will have the experience of hearing, saying and seeing the new words. After you have aroused interest in the material, helped students with the new words, you should be able, at this time, to introduce your "purpose questions". These provide students with a specific reason for reading.

The length of the readiness period may vary from day to day depending upon the material present. For the bilingual student this is time well spent. They will then proceed to the silent reading with a sense of confidence and purpose. One reading authority adds a word of caution--be sure not to give away the whole plot!

GUIDED SILENT READING

Most reading teachers of English speaking children, as a general rule, feel that silent reading should precede oral reading after the primary grades. With the bilingual student this will come later in the grades. The silent reading of new materials "at sight" is indeed a major achievement in the learning of a new language. This step of reading can be achieved only by those who have mastered the final basic signals of English very thoroughly.

The advantage of silent reading with older students after a good readiness period, is that they gain independence in word analysis and the use of context clues by individual practice that is inherent in the process of silent reading. As they are compelled to interpret and organize for themselves, they grow in skills and comprehension. Then reading becomes real reading in English, and not translation. The above can be true only if the students are reading materials on or near their instructional level. No progress can be expected if students are given materials too difficult for them.

Guided silent reading should be just as near as possible to reading in other subjects where the student reads for a purpose. If in the readiness period, students have formulated their own reasons for reading, then they have the most valid of purposes. But even if they read for a purpose supplied by the teacher, they have a core around which to assemble impressions and organize materials.

Circulate about the room as your students read silently, or if you have more than one group, work with only one group at a time. A student who needs help may raise his hand. Tell the child the word or definition he needs, do not dwell too long on analysis. Make a note of any problems that several students are having. Then you may work on them with the group later.

This is an excellent time to help individual students overcome poor reading habits. A word of advice here and there will help students adjust their reading speeds to the material being read. You may use this time as a diagnostic period.

It is easy to see which students are uninterested or frustrated in their efforts. The nature of their requests for help will point out their areas of weakness.

Students will read at different speeds. They will not all be finished at the same time. You can't have most of your class sitting around idle, or causing disturbance, while a few finish. It is a good "rule of thumb" to begin your discussion when approximately eighty to ninety percent of your class is ready. The well-advised teacher has found it necessary to provide some sort of seatwork for part of the class if the reading rates in the class are very divergent. Most reading authorities feel that this seatwork should not be on the material just read. (This will come as a surprise to many teachers.) If this surprises you, stop and think: With the bilingual child especially, the material has not been discussed and clarified so there is little point in having the students write erroneous or confused ideas. Other students may not read the entire selections, but employ their time in searching for answers to questions. A better type of seatwork is based on comprehension skills, problems in word analysis and word building that have already been taught. Commercially or teacher prepared material may be used here.

Your period of discussion following silent reading is the place where the comprehension skills are developed. This is a very vital period for the bilingual student and should be very well planned and not a hit or miss affair. First of all, answer and discuss your purpose questions which were formulated before the silent reading period. Students should know they will be held accountable, if possible, for the answers to these questions. It will help them make a real effort to keep them in mind and organize their replies. A good answer requires selecting among details.

It is very likely you will find your bilingual students weak in specific kinds of comprehension skills. Take great care in formulating questions to give practice needed in the following areas:

1. Factual questions are usually easiest for the bilingual student unless they deal with too many minor details. Being the easist, begin the discussion with this type of question, as it gives the linguistically handicapped student a sense of confidence.

2. Inference questions are hard for teachers to compose and are often neglected. "Reading between the lines" or to drawing conclusions that are not directly stated in the text is a very difficult task for the student that does not have a good understanding of the English language. Remember an easy way to phrase inference questions is to begin with a phrase such as: "How can you tell that -----?" OR "What makes you think that----?"

3. In vocabulary questions the student should not be asked to define a word. Giving a definition of a word is a very high level comprehension skill. A mistake teachers make is to ask a student to say the word in his native tongue to see if he understands the meaning. The naive assumption that each single word in English and some single word in some other language are simply two different tags for precisely the same bundle of experiences or meaning is entirely wrong. Except for highly technical words, there are no words in two separate languages that cover the same areas of meaning. The best way to define a word is to have the student give a synonym or antonym to tell how things are alike or different, or to illustrate with actions, or facial expression.

4. Organizational questions may require the restating of a main idea for the student to assemble facts and ideas and present them in one, two, three order.

5. Sequence questions demand the arrangement of events, facts, or ideas in order, whether of time, place or logic. One of the most difficult factors of the dominant culture to teach to Indian children is our concept of time. (A well-known authority on children in the United States once stated that it took the average English speaking child a little more than twelve years to master time. This is probably somewhat conservative. In fact, when one begins to discover how many complications are involved, he may wonder whether the full subtleties of time can be mastered at all by children from another culture.)

Examples of Use of Comprehension Questions

The following short illustration--from the Teacher's Manual that accompanies one of the Companion Series published by Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., (1962) - will illustrate the five general types of comprehension questions:

THE STORM

All night the sky had been starless and still. Martha Ellers, up before her husband and her brood of youngsters, shivered at the sight of bank upon bank of heavy gray clouds, pink tinged by the dull red glow in the east. Sam stumbled into the warm kitchen, bellowing over his shoulder for the boys to turn out. Warm under their quilts in the back room, David and Joey muttered protestingly until a final shout from their father brought them out into the icy air.

During the morning all went peacefully enough. It was not until the menfolk were leaning back, drowsy and heavy from the midday meal that the first gust of wind rattled the windows. The wind blew in fits and starts for an hour before it settled down to a steady thrust, and suddenly it was full of needles of ice.

Off to the far pasture went Joey on the run. The cow lagged and pulled back on her halter, lowing anxiously to the tiny calf that stumbled unsteadily behind her. David had less trouble with the horses, which were already milling about the gate and set off on a sharp trot for the barn door as soon as the bars were down. Even the most venturesome rooster had by now taken shelter in the chicken house, where Sam had let fall the shutters over the wire windows. Only a fool turkey still roosted on a tree limb by the pigpen, huddled in a miserable heap and hardly able to flap his wings as Joey hauled him down. David swatted the old sow sharply across the rump as he headed her for the barn, and her squealing piglets followed.

Martha shook her head as she watched the tiny green tips of her crocuses being shredded by the sleet, and pitied the trees, already swelling with new sap, as the ice coated their branches.

FACT

1. Which member of the family was the first out of bed?
2. How did Sam protect his chickens from the storm?

INFERENCE

3. How can you tell that the sky had been cloudy all night?
4. How can you tell that the boys dislike getting up?
5. What makes you think that the cow wanted to protect her calf?

6. How can you tell that the turkey was badly chilled?

VOCABULARY

7. Which word in the first paragraph means shouting?

8. What kinds of things do people shred deliberately?

ORGANIZATION

9. List all the kinds of livestock mentioned in the story.

SEQUENCE

10. List the storm signals in the order in which they appeared.

The same author mentions other skills that may be further developed by other types of questions. For example:

Understanding Main Ideas

1. What is a good title for each paragraph?

2. Would you say that Joey and David were lazy? Why or why not? (it would be interesting to see the answer an Indian child would give to this question.)

3. Do you think that the horses on the Eller's farm were more intelligent than the sow? Why or why not?

Understanding Figurative Language

4. How is a brood of youngsters like a brood of chickens?

5. Why do we get a clearer understanding from the sentence: "The wind was full of needles of ice" than from "The wind was full of pieces of ice"? (This concept would be clear to a Navajo student but not in the Papago student's sphere of experience.)

6. How is a bank of clouds different from a savings bank? What happens when a pilot banks a plane? What do we mean by the expression "I wouldn't bank on it"? (This is an excellent example of how to show the bilingual child that one word may have many meanings.)

Appreciating Good Description

7. Do you suppose that this author has experienced a storm like the one described? Why or why not?

Understanding an Author's Purpose and Attitude

8. What does the author want us to think about the turkey? How does he drive his point home? (Notice use of idiom.)

9. Is it fair to say from these paragraphs that the author dislikes farm life or that the author dislikes storms? Why or why not?

Skilled teachers have found with wise coaching and guidance that bilingual students can be trained to frame their own comprehension question. Working in this way can afford some variety from intensive questioning by the teacher. Do not expect this too soon.

If there is difficulty in answering questions, direct the student to the text for rereading. Here is the perfect time for oral reading as the student reads aloud, to prove a point. Ask students to read conversation as they think the character in the selection would have said the statement, or asked the question. Good description, or lively action, is highlighted if read aloud. These are excellent techniques to use with students that are hesitant to answer questions aloud and should be a must until you can encourage and stimulate them to talk freely.

It is interesting to note that the methods recommended by successful teachers for developing comprehension skills through an oral question period is a time honored way of teaching. In essence, it is the Socratic method - stimulating, vivid, and effective.

Of course one of your major problems is to diagnose areas in which your class is weak. Your upper-grade bilingual student may have come through a primary and intermediate reading program in which he was exposed to a good program for developing word attack skills. However, he is likely to have gaps in his mastery of these skills. Words questioned by students during the directed silent reading period, as do the mispronunciations and hesitations evident during oral reading, will furnish you clues as to their remedial needs.

SOUNDS IN ENGLISH

Students learning English as a second language frequently are not able to recognize consonant blends that cause difficulty. (Be sure to check, as simple as it may seem, that your students are able to associate the blends with the graphic symbols standing for them.)

Consonant Blends: (Where two or more letters are blended together.)

1. Blends ending with l: bl, cl, fl, gl, pl, sl, spl.
2. Blends ending with r: br, cr, dr, fr, gr, pr, tr, chr, scr, shr, spr, str, thr.
3. Blends beginning with w: dw, sw, tw.
4. Blends beginning with s: sc, sk, sm, sn, sp, st, sch.

Digraphs: (A combination of two letters that has a sound unlike that of either of the individual letters.)

1. Some common consonant digraphs in which two letters represent a single sound are:

   ch, sh, th, wh, wr, ng.

2. Children learning a second language have difficulty in recognizing blends and digraphs in initial, medial, and final positions.

   Examples: stem, instant, least

chime, hatchet, beach (Ch is especially difficult for Spanish speaking students.)

Vowel Sounds

1. As a minimum, students should recognize vowel sounds that are long, short, or silent.

2. Be sure they know that a vowel sound is somewhat modified when it is followed by the graphemes: r, w, or l.

3. Bilingual students may need practice in recognizing and sounding vowel diphthongs. Unlike your English speaking students they cannot use context clues to help them where a vowel or a group of vowels stands for several different sounds.

4. It is not unusual to find students even when they know the basic rules for sounding vowels unable to apply them. Because many teachers have asked for a simple statement of these rules, here they are as listed in the above mentioned Teacher's Manual.

   a. In a one-vowel word, the vowel is usually long if it comes at the end of the word. Example: he, no.

   b. In a two-vowel word when one vowel is e at the end, the first vowel is long and the e is silent. Example: ride.

   c. In a one-vowel word or syllable in which the vowel stands between two consonants, the vowel is usually short. Example: top, nut.

   d. In words containing a vowel digraph, the first vowel is usually long and the second vowel is silent. Example: rain, boat.

WORD ANALYSIS

Students must be able to recognize root or base words. In order to do this they need to be familiar with common prefixes, suffixes, and inflectional endings. (Do you know them? OR, do you need to review them?) One of the biggest surprises, to not only the bilingual student in the upper-grades but also many times to English speaking students, is finding a familiar word behaving as a different part of speech. Also when the base word changes in spelling because of the inflectional ending your bilingual student will need help in recognizing the inflected form.

Rules for Syllabication

If students do not know the basic rules for syllabication they will find it difficult to attack new words. Again, because many teachers have asked for them, they are repeated here:

1. When a word has a double consonant, or two consonants, following a vowel, divide the word between the consonants, such as: Hit-tite, Mis-sis-sip-pi, Ham-mer-fest, col-lec-tive, Ap-pian, Bren-ner, and tun-dra, Mos-lem, mon-soon, or-bit, or Den-mark.

2. When a vowel is followed by a single consonant in a word of more than one syllable, the division is made before the consonants, as in: co-lo-nial, Hai-fa, Rho-de-sia, So-viet, and ve-to.

3. When a word contains a consonant blend, the blend is usually not divided, as in: West-min-ster, Rem-brandt, man-u-scripts, Liv-ing-stone, and Ca-sa-blan-ca.

4. When a word ends in "le" the preceding consonant belongs with the unaccented ending as in: Bi-ble, mid-dle, Con-stan-ti-no-ple, mar-ble.

5. A word may be composed of a root, plus a prefix and/or a suffix. Common prefixes that should be learned are: un, ex, pre, ab, ad, com, en, in, re, de, sub, be, dis, pro.

   Common suffixes include: ment, tion, tive, ly, less, ance, ness, ful, ship.

Practice in word analysis is best given in small doses and in meaningful situations. Students learning a second language should apply a new word-analysis skill to familiar words at first. An excellent device is to take words from text selection that the students know and develop a principle inductively, and have the students formulate their own rule. This has proved very successful with older Indian students:

USE OF THE DICTIONARY

Unless students are given practice in using syllabication skills, both in the regular developmental reading class and as applied in social studies and other classes, they do not acquire the needed ease of recognition that allows them to read material, that is not familiar to them, with interest; thus, simply plodding along and translating can become a deadly bore.

Here is a word of warning. It is best not to ask the bilingual student to look up a word in the dictionary unless the word is presented in context. When a word is given in isolation, the student has no basis for choosing among the many definitions offered. It is good exercise to use his dictionary and glossary meaningfully -- and not just to keep him busy.

> Dr. Edgar Mayor, University of Buffalo, has this to say about teaching students to learn a second language: "In foreign-language work there has been a curious lack of clear thinking beyond the elementary level. In the beginning course (this would correspond to primary work,) we carefully and systematically tackle the phonology, morphology, and syntax, designing each lesson to accomplish a meaningful, handleable chunk of work. But as soon as we move to the reading course we abandon all system.
>
> Our readings are chosen apparently for their literary value or their exciting plots, and not for their value as language-learning aids; and apparently we believe it does the student's soul good to look up word after word in the dictionary -- or else that there isn't anything we can do about vocabulary. Unfortunately, as a veteran of many such courses in which I was the looker-upper, I can assure you there is nothing more hateful or demoralizing than having to look up two and three words per sentence. One feels that it is all so haphazard, and that there must be more words than there are stars in the heavens -- and how can one ever learn them all?"

The follow-up activities become all important, in fact "the proof of the pudding." If your students cannot apply the skills taught in the reading period as tools in other subjects you have indeed failed in your efforts to teach him to read.

The skills learned in reading can be extended to give practice in speaking and writing as well as reading for other reasons.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF READING MATERIALS

It would be amiss when discussing an upper grade reading program not to include a few notes on the type of reading selections found in some of the better basic readers used at this level. The authors of one series give an excellent explanation why each type of selection is essential for a well-rounded reading program.

Short Stories

Reading has not become a real form of recreation for many Indian and Spanish-speaking students. Most of the reading they have done has probably been teacher directed for school work. The very brevity of the short story may appeal to these students because they feel that they can complete the story within a reasonable length of time. A good short story can also be a relief from studying and remembering factual content.

Have you ever stopped to think how in the reading of short stories you can show the older student the importance of varying his reading speed. You can point out to the class that the opening paragraphs of a short story should be read rather slowly and carefully as the author presents the "pitch" of the story in so few words. Once the student is familiar with the setting and tone of the story, he can increase his rate of reading as the excitement mounts and the story problem becomes more pressing.

In reading, the bilingual is sadly lacking in vocabulary and in the cultural background which is necessary for the understanding of the literature he is expected to read in the upper grades. He tends to become a fact finder; therefore, he needs units of work rich in questions and exercises that develop inference skills. "Reading between the lines" can be aided by questions that deal with:

1. Understanding characters

2. Visualizing setting

3. Grasping point of view

4. Making judgments or generalizations

How can your bilingual student discuss freely, analyze a piece of writing when he has missed the general interpretation, the overtones of satire, direct implications and connotation. Much of his pleasure in reading fiction will hinge upon his ability to use his imagination and intuition to derive meaning.

Prepare for each reading lesson. You must be familiar with your material. Begin to gather a classroom library of short story collections and appropriate magazines, which can be used for supplementary reading. Use available films, filmstrips, and slides that might motivate reading or supplement understanding. (See: Sources of Free and Inexpensive Educational Materials, P. O. Box 186, Grafton, West Virginia; Esther Dever.) Bulletin boards can be used to arouse and sustain interest. In a classroom an enterprising teacher had on display a group of pictures with the title "People, Places, Things". As the students read stories, they printed the titles on slips of paper and added them under pictures that they agreed were basically pertinent to the story.

Read to your students! Select good short stories that are appropriate to the understanding and interest of the group. This kind of activity helps to develop listening skills--and with the correct motivation should encourage oral discussion.

Too, the reading of short stories may lead to creative writing. As you work through such selections with your bilingual students you will be helping them develop an understanding of the elements of a good short story:

1. Good first paragraph to catch and hold the reader's interest:
    a. establishing, setting and mood
    b. introducing characters
    c. presenting story problem
2. Variety of devices to project clearly the personality of characters
3. Sticking to a central theme
4. How to develop a plot
5. Much reading to gain appreciation of different author's style and choice of words.

Indian students have a better-than-average ability to express themselves in writing: their ideas are frequently vivid, concrete, and original. Where they fail in expressing themselves is their lack of vocabulary items and in their misuse of English idioms.

They will need teacher help and guidance even after they have begun to grasp the elements of a short story. This is the time to give them an opportunity to create their own short stories. You will need a number of large action pictures that set the scene for a good tale. Magazine covers can be used. These pictures will set the scene for a story and give ideas for the all-important first sentences or paragraphs. Give the students an opportunity to tell his story orally first. In this way he will have his thoughts organized in oral English before he tries to convert them to writing. Rather than correct all papers you might use the opaque projector and let the class revise and proof-read them under your guidance. Some teachers cover the name and use papers from different students each time.

Sociodrama, or role-playing may be used to illustrate problems or situations found in short stories. One author of upper grade texts has this to say: "This type of unrehearsed drama begins with a clear statement of a situation. Members of the class are assigned (or may volunteer) roles that are clearly described. Then, without script or rehearsal, the cast acts out the situation, using whatever real-life speech, gestures and solutions that occur to them. The only direction given to the cast is to act and speak exactly as they think the characters would in real life."

After the sociodrama is concluded have the student audience evaluate the action. This discussion is more valuable than the action itself as it gives students coming from a subculture an opportunity to air his problems and frustrations in meeting the social situations in the school environment.

Non-fiction

One of the most useful skills a person can have in our do-it-yourself society is to be able to read and to follow directions. This is an extra important skill for the bilingual student. He, as well as other teenagers, are eager to learn about the things that interest them--how they are done and why they work as they do. Use materials that give factual reports on youthful exploration. Selections that explain in simple terms how "things" work are valuable in building the skill of following directions.

Most Indian students are interested in nature. Assign expository selections that present contrasts in purpose and structure. This type of reading helps the students to sense variations in mood and design.

Biographical selections will introduce your students to young people of courage and imagination. As your bilingual student reads such material he should be helped to look for emerging characterization, and the daily life depicted in the story.

Openly you, as a teacher, set out to demonstrate the drama and excitement of the real world of the dominant American society. Behavioral patterns worth following can be set forth. In reading biographies, your students will find that all people, of all races, have their problems and failures and triumphs.

Teachers have found that bilingual students flounder when reading an article or essay which has little or no story line. This is an advanced skill for they must cope with key words and abstractions which should help them understand the author's thoughts.

You will need to make a careful breakdown of the necessary reading process, then the student through step-by-step guidance will eventually read articles on his own. This is easier said than done.

First have the students skim the material to be read, noting the title, the headings, and any other clues to the scope and purpose of the selection. Have them try to decide the purpose of reading this material and if possible relating the apparent scope of the article to his own experience or what he knows about the subject. At first you will have to formulate guide questions about the content for which the students seek answers as they read. In time (don't be impatient) he should be able to make up his own purpose questions. Always remember it is towards independence in reading that the class is moving with your guidance.

Be sure the non-fiction materials you use fall within the sphere of general adolescent interest. Also, materials where the reading problems challenge but do not overwhelm your linguistically handicapped students who will need help from you in the form of systematic instruction.

Non-fiction requires a slow, thoughtful approach to receive the author's message. Scientific material calls upon the student to grasp directions accurately, to make logical inferences and to apply known principles. Charts, maps and diagrams should be related to this type of reading.

Exploration and historical accounts are not easy reading for students coming from a sub-cultural background. It is many times difficult for them to understand time sequence. This is especially true with the Indian student where his tribe's history is as much mythology as fact.

IX SUMMARY

"To know anything with thoroughness is to know it in all its complexities." The longer you teach the bilingual child the more you will know about his problems. Sometimes the complexities of the problems almost overwhelm you. Do not dismay. Always remember that the teacher is the most important single element in any teaching-learning situation.

It is your personality, your attitude towards your work and the students, and your desire for increased knowledge in your field which will determine the kind of instructional program the bilingual child will receive. You may have to modify certain techniques and procedure that you learned as "gospel" in your teacher training in order to foster the growth of the Indian or Mexican-American children towards socially and educationally desirable goals. Take stock of yourself often. Some of the questions you may ask yourself are:

1. Do I know the background of my pupils?
2. Do I know their educational background, their living habits, their socio-economic conditions, their hobbies and their interests?
3. Do I know the most modern methods of teaching reading and special methods of teaching English as a second language?
4. Do I know something about the native language of the bilingual children in my room?
5. Do I use a variety of media to strengthen second language learning?
6. Do I take care of individual differences?
7. Do my plans for teaching reading include activities and learnings which students feel they can use immediately in all classes and in their daily lives?
8. Do I start where the child "is" and take him to where he "ain't" by definite steps based on the scope and sequence of his earlier schooling?
9. Do I follow the progress of my students in other classes and make certain what I teach is functional in real life situations?
10. Do I provide for a continuous evaluation of my students? To assess their needs in terms of the various reading skills do I use:
    a. standardized tests
    b. interviewing and observing student
    c. consulting cumulative records and contributing information to the records
    d. teacher made tests to measure effectiveness of instruction.
11. Do I modify my procedures if I find they are not achieving important language social and emotional objectives?

The ultimate goal of the reading program is to enable students to read all types of material with comprehension, ease, and enjoyment. Teachers of bilingual children will find this a challenging task. When you combine training, devotion to an idea, and enthusiasm - you have a potent force.

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